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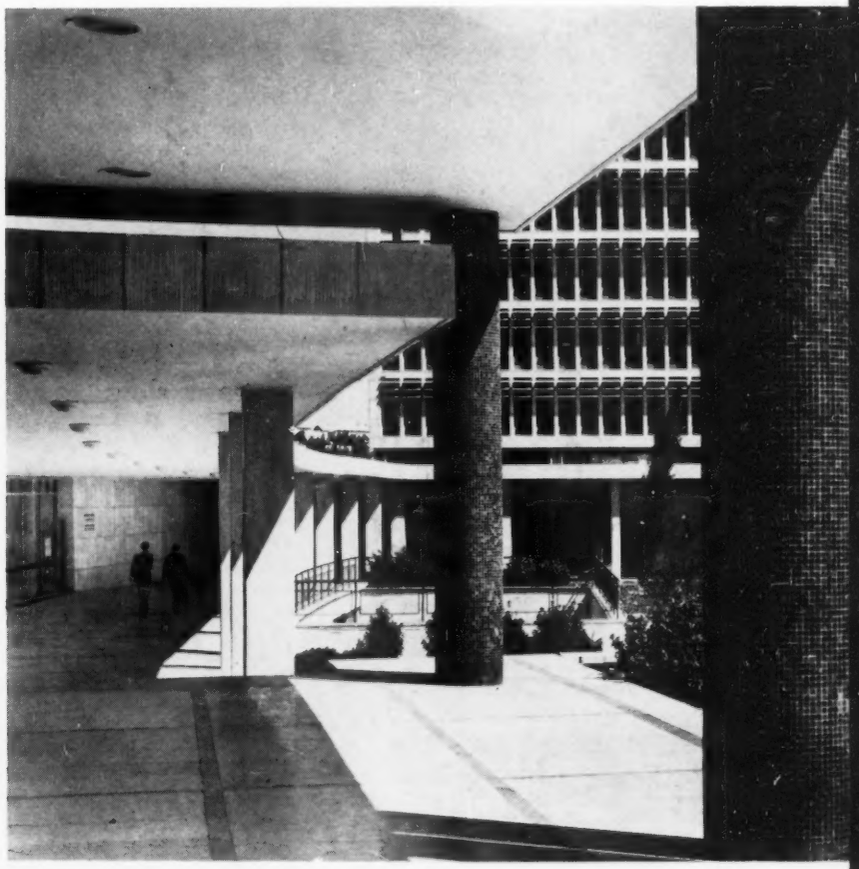

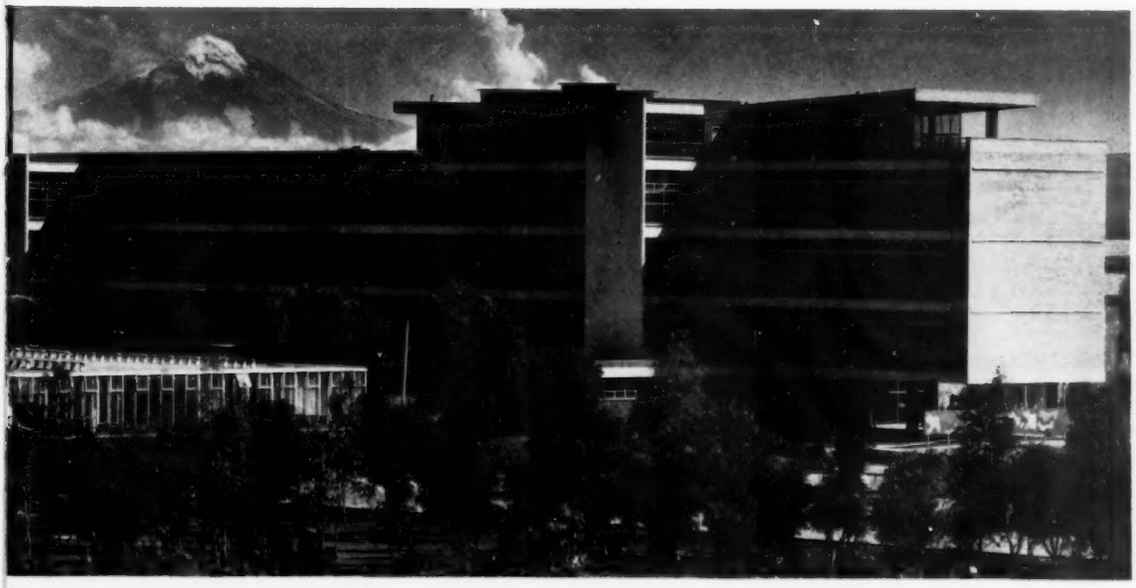

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Cover: The faculty center at the University of Washington, the administration building of Hebrew University, the School of Veterinary Medicine at the National University of Mexico and Sewall Hall—a women's residence hall at the University of Colorado represent new trends in university architecture. A picture-story on modern university architecture begins on page 28.

PICTURE CREDITS: Cover—(upper left) University of Washington, (upper right) Hebrew University of Jerusalem, (lower left) National University of Mexico, (lower right) University of Colorado; Page 4—(Powell, Virginia); Page 7—University of Seattle; Pages 9-11—Japan Scholarship Foundation; Pages 12-15—Sebastiano Mazzaracchio; Pages 16-18—The Ford Foundation; Pages 20-21—Embassy of Ceylon, Washington, D. C.; Page 23—H. Goldstein; Pages 24-27—Barbara A. Yates; Page 28—(upper) University of Washington, (lower left) Brandeis University, (lower right) University of Washington; Page 29—(upper left) Ken Richards, (upper right) University of Colorado, (center) the Trustees of International College, (lower) Florida Southern College; Page 30—(top) Miriam Shamir, (bottom) The Orient Press Photo Co.—P. Gross; Page 33—Stephen K. Bailey; Page 36—Louis Lehtonen; Pages 38-39—Monash University; Pages 40-42—Salih J. Al-Toma; Page 48—Louis Lehtonen.

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Universities Around the World

F. CYRIL JAMES

The author, who is President of the International Association of Universities and Principal and Vice-Chancellor of McGill University, in this article discusses the responsibilities of today's universities.

Expenditures on higher education are increasing rapidly because, in all parts of the world, there is a growing realization that education is not, as was once thought, a consumer good but a significant investment in the future development of every country. The young men and women of a country are its greatest natural asset; money spent to improve their cultural qualifications and economic productivity is likely to bring larger ultimate dividends in actual dollars than any other kind of investment. And if this is recognized to be true of the countries of Western Europe, where schools and universities of outstanding eminence have existed for centuries, the development of institutions of higher education is of the greatest conceivable importance to the newly independent nations of the world.

Since modern technology is both cumulative and transferable—as the experience of the USSR in backward regions like Uzbekistan has demonstrated—every one of the new countries in the world is at this moment in history striving to expand its old universities or colleges and to create new ones. Considerably more than half of the universities in the world are less than 50 years old, and a substantial number of new institutions have been created since the end of the second world war. Never in the history of mankind has as large a proportion of the population sought the opportunity for higher education and—in most parts of the world—been urged thereto by government. In this respect the aims of the U.S. and the USSR are identical.

A university, however, is in its essence a group of scientists and scholars—a group of men and women. New buildings can be constructed easily and quickly, if funds are available. Equipment can be purchased, and even libraries are not difficult to acquire if money is made available in large enough amounts, but the men and women who constitute the heart of a university and determine its status are less easily brought together. In the case of a new university, the teaching staff must be drawn from older universities, and for a period of years the brightest of the graduates of the new university must be sent to older institutions for postgraduate study and research so that they may qualify to return to their alma mater as professors. Within the territorial borders of the United States, of Great Britain or of the USSR—to cite but three examples—this process has been going on for generations. When one attends a commencement at the youngest American university, the gowns and hoods of the faculty members immediately proclaim its debt to Harvard, Pennsylvania, Princeton and a score of other older institutions.

Indeed, half a century ago, the same pattern developed within a much larger political unit—the British Empire. This group of nations, races, peoples and languages, as it existed on the eve of the first world war, tackled the problem of developing new universities and colleges by drawing upon the experience and the staff of the older universities of Great Britain. The Inter-University Council, in London, was financed by the national government and specifically charged with the responsibility for helping the new universities—usually university colleges at the outset—which were set up in the colonies. This pattern has persisted into the new political organization of the Commonwealth, and the Ashby Report of the Commission on Post-School Certificate and Higher Education in Nigeria, *Investment*

in Education, is but the latest in a long line of studies directed toward this goal. The Association of the Universities of the British Commonwealth, since it came into existence in 1911, also has provided opportunities for collaboration among all the universities—new and old—and has been of inestimable value to the newer institutions in the recruitment of staff.

At this moment in history, university collaboration and the recruitment of staff must cross national frontiers and bridge differences of race, religion, legal patterns and political philosophy. There are no old universities in several of the countries that have recently attained independence while, in others, the literary and religious traditions of the old universities that are in existence preclude them from embracing the new scientific and technological disciplines. If the newly created universities in the countries of Africa, Asia and South America are to obtain the staff upon which their development depends, they must draw upon the older universities of Europe and North America.

The International Association of Universities (I.A.U.), which came into existence more than a decade ago, helps to provide opportunities for collaboration among all the universities of the world, new and old, from both sides of the Iron Curtain. At Nice, at Istanbul and at Mexico City, the quinquennial Congresses have brought together scientists, scholars and administrators from hundreds of universities to discuss common problems. The proceedings of these Congresses, which have been published, deserve the attention of all who are interested in universities around the world, since they reveal the diversity of problems and of points of view.

But talk, pleasant as it is in so cosmopolitan a gathering, must lead to action if it is to be truly helpful. The Secretariat of the I.A.U., in Paris, has become a clearing house for information and a center of specific collaboration on a steadily expanding scale. Its best-known publication is probably the *International Handbook of Universities,* of which the second edition is due to be published in 1962.

During the summer of 1959, as a result of discussions between Unesco and the I.A.U., a committee was set up to study "Formal Programmes of International Cooperation Between Universities," and its report was published under that title by Unesco. The committee unanimously concluded that a young university in a newly independent country is likely to be aided more effectively by the direct collaboration of an older university in Europe or North America than by expert teams sent out from the I.C.A. in Washington or the Ministry of Culture in Moscow.

Although the development of higher education throughout the world cannot escape from international politics as long as there are great powers with divergent aims, it must not become a political football. If you train men to think, and give them the opportunity to study for themselves, it is foolish to expect to purchase their loyalty by so doing. Our greatest hope for the world is that men and women, in all countries, should think freely and independently, making up their own minds in the presence of the facts. This is the 1,000-year old tradition of academic freedom, a tradition that must be planted in countries (and they are many) where it is not indigenous. Governments, seeking to influence men's minds, are unlikely to achieve that aim, no matter how generous they may be, but it is possible that the older universities of the world where the tradition is deeply rooted, may be able to do so.

If the older universities are to make their influence felt, they will have to do much more than they are now doing—even though the present activities in this field are unprecedented. For example, in the United States, two years ago, there were only 184 universities with programs of international cooperation out of a total of 1,762 listed by Michigan State University's Institute of Research on Overseas Programs. Since that time a large number of new programs have been started and larger numbers of American universities are involved, but, as the Morrill Report, *The University in World Affairs,* indicates, we have scarcely scratched the surface of the field.

On a sundial in an old English garden is the motto: "It is later than you think." There are more universities around the world than at any time in human history. Newly won political freedom and the exploding scientific revolution have placed before mankind opportunities that never existed before for the improvement of the conditions of human life on this planet.

Millions—yes, literally, millions—of young men and women in all parts of the world are eager to obtain the kind of education that will enable them to play a larger part in shaping the future. These young men and women will determine the pattern of the world tomorrow—whether we help them to get an education or not. If we do not respond to their call by aiding the new universities to develop in the ancient academic tradition of reverence for truth, wherever it is found, we shall have lost in this generation an opportunity that may never recur.

MARTHA B. LUCAS

160 VISITS

Martha B. Lucas, former President of Sweet Briar College, is Director of the Institute of International Education's Office of University Relations.

In January of this year, the Institute of International Education initiated a program of special visits, by its officers and staff, to universities and colleges throughout the nation. The purpose of the Visit Program was to learn from each institution its policies, problems and plans in the rapidly expanding field of international education and to bring each institution up to date on IIE's current program, services and future plans.

The following analysis is based upon reports of these special visits to some 160 universities and colleges in 41 states and in the District of Columbia. The institutions visited range in size from a small, private, closely contained graduate school of fewer than 300 students to a large and rapidly growing university complex like the State University of New York, with its 46,000 full-time, degree students (plus an equal number of part-time special students). They range in age and prestige from our oldest and proudest on the River Charles to the University of Southern Florida (at Tampa), so new that it has only a freshman class, but expects to reach an enrollment of 17,000 within the next three years.

Among these 160 institutions, there are radical variations in attitudes and practices in the field of international education. They range from a college with one foreign student, like Wells in New York State or Wofford in South Carolina (or even like Hendrix College, in Arkansas, with none) to universities with 500 to 1,000 foreign students: Indiana, Cornell, Harvard and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (or even New York University or the University of California with closer to 2,000 foreign students).

The diversity in attitudes toward having foreign students on campus is also pronounced. As the Foreight Student Adviser of one state institution (with more than 100 foreign students but no Negroes) explained: "Our American students don't care about foreign students . . . or where they come from." By

contrast many institutions visited, whether they have five or 500 foreign students, are keenly desirous (students, faculty and administration alike) of having more students from other countries. They make it clear, of course, that they prefer students of the highest academic ability, wholly pre-paid and with no personal problems. Many of these institutions have assured IIE's visitors that no matter how tight their budgets, they will somehow manage to provide at least partial scholarship aid for top-flight foreign students. Repeatedly the reason was given: "The *good* foreign students are more mature, serious and purposeful than our American students; they set a fine example."

The problems of foreign students as encountered by the universities and colleges visited present another diverse picture. One justly renowned women's college in Pennsylvania, once it had wrestled with its deluge of direct foreign applications for both college and graduate studies and admitted a highly selected group, found that things go "really quite smoothly," without the persistent language, academic and personal problems encountered by the great majority of our institutions. Most schools complain bitterly of perennial problems with some students who "can't even nod their heads in English," whose transcripts turn out to have been totally misleading (or misunderstood) and whose social and emotional maladjustments are a constant cause of friction and frustration to all, including themselves.

There is wide variation, also, among the institutions visited, in the amount of financial help provided for foreign students. While lack of funds is the common cry from coast to coast, a few of the institutions budget "until it hurts" (and beyond), to bring needy foreign students of high calibre to enrich their campus life by cross fertilization of cultures and ideas. One of the oldest and most distinguished women's colleges in New England rigorously allocates $40,000 in a tight budget for the tuition and maintenance of its 30 to 40 foreign students, while some institutions many times its size operate on the policy that it would be downright un-American to "deprive" American students of their education by allocating more than a few thousand dollars for the education of "foreigners."

As would be expected from the variations described above, there is enormous diversity among U.S. institutions of higher education in the extent to which international interests and concerns are affecting curricular development, as well as special programs and projects, on and off campus. The survey leaves no doubt that a great many of our colleges and universities still define liberal education in terms of our Western tradition and cultural provincialism. Some admit frankly that they "just aren't internationally minded" or "are too busy with [their] . . . own local and state problems to bother about foreign problems." Others say that they are having a hard enough time finding "half-literate" teachers for the traditional courses without going into the morass of oriental culture, or experimenting with introductory Russian or Arabic, or exploring Africa's tribal customs or political ambitions.

Other institutions, by contrast, have gone so far along the road of genuine international education that complex curricula, involving the scientific, cultural and linguistic departments of the institution, are now offered in Asiatic, Latin American, African and Russian study programs, and there is much going and coming between hemispheres of professors as well as students. Some of the smaller institutions have found curricular expansion financially possible only through a gradual internal change of course content, made feasible by the broadening of faculty interests and competence. A number of institutions, despite stark limitations of enrollment and budget managed to expand their curricula into non-Western fields cooperating with neighboring institutions, adding new courses and professors to be shared on a commuting basis. In some instances, foundation grants have made possible the initial steps; and from all indications, this type of cooperative planning will be an important factor in internationalizing our university and college curricula.

Growing international concern is reflected on many campuses in the initiation or proliferation of special programs and projects for foreign students and professors in the U.S. or in the encouragement of U.S. students and professors to pursue their studies abroad. Interest is growing in the already established language and orientation institutes for incoming foreign students, and new institutes are being developed. All over the country our most lively universities and colleges are inaugurating special projects such as the promising new "African-American Public Affairs Internship Program" at one outstanding university in the East, a special studies program on Indonesia at another university on the West Coast and a variety of Latin American projects at a number of institutions in different geographical sections. Many report that they are developing special programs in one or another area, be it Southeast Asia, Japan, Russia, Eastern Europe, Africa, British Guiana, Peru, Korea or Afghanistan. Several programs developed by accident, without previous

plans, because "some foreign contact set things off."

Promising projects are being proposed in unexpected places. A state university in the Northwest wants to train teachers for Africa (with the help of I.C.A. and the U.S. Office of Education). A greatly respected teachers' college in the South wants to establish a center to help improve foreign school systems, specifically those of Asia, the Near East and Latin America. A "World College," for both American and foreign students, is being planned by a group of coordinated colleges in California.

On the export side of academic exchanges, the pre-war trickle of professors and students, carrying out work projects overseas, has developed into a main stream. There is ever-increasing interest and participation in Fulbright and I.C.A. programs and a proportionate interest in the many other more restricted opportunities offered for projects abroad. From the reports of the institutions visited, it is apparent that I.C.A. projects are enabling the United States to share some of its best brains and brawn with developing countries. A number who have had teams working abroad (in education, agriculture and such, in the Far East, Africa and other areas) are now finding that their home campuses have been greatly stimulated toward further studies, work and exchanges with the countries involved. One state university in the Northwest even suggested that their entrenched isolationism had given way to current world-awareness primarily as a result of a series of I.C.A. faculty and student exchanges with Afghanistan.

Concern was widely expressed about trends in junior year programs. The startling proliferation of these programs in the last several years is believed by most experienced critics to be inimical to the best interests of our students, our institutions and to America's reputation abroad. The recent trend of sending an individual college's classroom abroad, with minimal involvement in the language or educational climate of the country visited, is viewed with considerable alarm. By some it is even suggested that the three or four preferred junior year programs (most frequently cited are Smith, Sweet Briar and Wayne), while recognized as providing genuine foreign-education experience, should consider revising their groups toward sophomore rather than junior year participation. This would obviate the necessity of the students' missing half of their major work, for which the junior year abroad is not seen as an adequate substitute.

Some of the best informed critics of the junior year abroad feel that America's universities and colleges would be wise to encourage, in future, graduate studies rather than undergraduate abroad. Considering, however, that one of New England's Ivy League colleges has recently instituted a Junior Year in Africa, it is probable that U.S. education has by no means heard the last of foreign study at the junior year level.

One of IIE's purposes in the Visit Program was to evoke comment and criticism from U.S. universities and colleges on the Institute's present services and on the new proposal for expanded services overseas. (Through its Overseas Development Program, IIE intends to establish offices in Africa, Asia and Latin America.) On both counts the visits proved most fruitful and of immeasurable help to IIE and consequently, it is hoped, to IIE's principal clients, U.S. institutions of higher education. Many institutions throughout the country which depend wholly or primarily upon IIE for their foreign student applicants and their other international contacts expressed general satisfaction with past services and a fervent desire to cooperate with and be served by new IIE offices overseas.

Searching criticism and comment, however, emanated from a number of the large and best-known institutions which receive the majority of their foreign applications directly and handle most of their own international problems. To the modest extent to which these are dependent upon IIE they expressed the desire to have more complete and accurate papers on any IIE candidate, providing sufficient data on academic achievement, English language competence and personal attributes. They would like to receive from IIE preliminary papers on only those candidates whose academic interests are appropriate to the institution's offerings, and they urgently request the greatest possible number of revolutions per minute of all bureaucratic wheels-within-wheels so that desirable candidates will not get irrevocably lost in the delay. It was also suggested by a number of university and college leaders that IIE, to do its part in the important work of relating U.S. institutions to world affairs more effectively, must recruit for its own official posts specialists and generalists of the highest calibre, persons of proven competence in dealing with academic matters.

Those persons reacting to IIE's plan for expanded services in the Overseas Development Program generally favored immediate implementation. With several salient exceptions, all institutions visited took the position that the proposed new services could help fill an urgent need in facilitating the expansion

This year there were more foreign students at U.S. academic institutions than ever before. Pictured above, the campus of the University of Washington where 536 students from abroad were enrolled.

of U.S. universities and colleges in the field of international education. Many believed that the overseas development was not only timely but also overdue, as it would inevitably fill a need which has existed for some time.

These institutions are particularly hopeful that new offices, in key locations abroad, will enable IIE to gather detailed and accurate information on applicants' achievements, aptitudes and personal attributes. They wish also to have dependable up-to-date information on the educational background of foreign applicants, with skilled evaluation of ways in which the foreign educational system has qualified the applicant for successful studies in a U.S. institution. But most fervently of all, they desire that IIE's new offices abroad make possible the administration of some kind of standardized tests for English language competence and/or personal interviews which will apprise the admissions officers in the U.S. of the actual, not wishful, ability of the applicant to handle studies in English.

With special reference to the proposed installation of IIE staff in Africa, hope was expressed by many institutions around the country that IIE would make every effort to coordinate programs of African exchange. It is generally felt that the concerns and needs of young African leaders will be best served if all interested agencies work together, rather than in seeming competition, to promote the desired exchanges. It is hoped that IIE's official work in Africa will effectively supplement its other, recent efforts at coordination of African programs.

There were a few, but loud, dissenting voices to the general chorus of approval of IIE's Overseas Plan. At one large state university in the Southwest it was felt that IIE would do well to concentrate on U.S. universities and colleges, particularly upon promoting international concern through the establishment of international centers on the campuses. Others said that IIE's plan is all right as far as it goes but that unless the proposed few offices in a few countries are quickly followed by many, IIE's program can do little to fill the tremendously growing needs of international exchange. A few college and university officials expressed their conviction that the size of the program actually demanded by both national and international interests is such that only a gigantic operation, supported by federal funds, can possibly fill the needs of our institutions.

In discussing financing an adequate program for overseas offices the institutions visited seemed to reach a stalemate. Despite general affirmation of the value and need of IIE's proposed expansion, only a small percentage felt that their institutions could allocate a fee commensurate with the services which they hope to receive. The large majority postponed any financial commitment, on the grounds that they would be in a better position to plead their need for even an inadequate contribution before legislatures or boards after the quality and quantity of the new services are actually known. Many of those interviewed felt strongly that the financial burden of the needed services should rest elsewhere, since some educational institutions already are so hard pressed financially that they are struggling for sheer survival. This does not mean, they contended, that our colleges and universities do not recognize an important job to be done in international education. Most do, and they are willing to undertake the additional work and worry involved; but they are in no position to foot the bill or even half of it. It is urgently hoped that the needed services will be subsidized.

IIE's extensive survey indicates that U.S. university and college leaders are, for the most part, cognizant of higher education's stake in world affairs and of the service which our institutions can render not only to the national interest but also to understanding and peace between the peoples of the world. They stand ready to extend themselves in many areas of effort toward those ends, but financially they feel unequal to the task of supporting most of the facilitating services which they need. They agree that IIE's new program of overseas services is urgently needed and trust that the necessary support may come, preferably from foundations and private enterprise or, if necessary, from the federal government.

There is an unmistakable concensus throughout the country that regardless of the specific source of financial support, for any and all expansion in the field of international education, the independent voice of the universities and colleges themselves must direct the course. While the IIE visits followed so immediately upon the release of the Morrill Committee's report, *The University and World Affairs,* that many of those interviewed had not seen the report, there was conspicuous agreement among those visited that the report was correct in urging that an independent private organization "based upon American univeristies and colleges" is needed to provide a mechanism through which those institutions can cooperate in their expanding international programs. Similarly, it was hoped by many interviewed that IIE would be counselled and guided in its expanded services by the skill and experience of our best college and university minds.

Mrs. Sano, a former Fulbrighter from Japan, studied radio and TV journalism while in the United States.

"A SPOTLESS HEART AND TWO SOILED HANDS"

The Award-Winning Essay, "The Returning Asian Student: Problems and Opportunities," of the Ninth Annual Essay Contest sponsored by The Asian Student

UJJWALA SALVE

Ujjwala Salve is the first-prize winner of the Ninth Annual Essay Contest of The Asian Student. *Miss Salve, who won first prize last year as well, is a doctoral student at Wayne State University, Detroit, Michigan. She plans to return to India to teach in her home town of Madhya Pradesh.*

Who is the "Returning Asian Student?" It seems difficult to draw his face; he is one among thousands —one of those Asian students who left his country for higher studies, research and new learnings, presumably planning to return to his motherland. One has to get a profile of him. First of all, he is a marginal man between two different worlds. He comes from lands where hunger and disease emaciate human lives; where illiteracy darkens the door of communication with millions of minds; where life goes on at the pace of a bullock-cart or camel; where serfdom and servile conditions have plagued his fellow men for decades, and the people are coming out of a millennial darkness. On the other hand, he has spent a period of time in a land that spells well-being; where food is plentiful; where life is jet-paced; where liberty, justice and fraternity form the ideal; where exchange of ideas is not limited to communication by word of mouth; where man has all the means and wherewithal to expel every trace of darkness. He stands between contrasting worlds, physically, socially, economically and culturally.

So much for the profile, but this returning Asian student is not what he was when he first touched these foreign shores.

Taped sessions of a children's story program and U.S. TV shows were translated for use after Mrs. Sano's return.

In him, there has been a metamorphosis of tremendous significance with cataclysmic implications. This metamorphosis may be a mere change in weight or food habits or a change in marital status (deeper if an international union) or the emergence of a new personality. There is no telling whether the transformation is negative or positive; only one thing is sure—the returning Asian student is a new composite of many factors. He is headed toward grave problems as well as great opportunities.

However, all this time we have been assuming that this person is returning. There may be many Asians reading these lines who have become citizens or permanent residents of the U.S., who have come back frustrated from their motherlands or who did not choose to return. And so one of the biggest questions for the student is "why should he return?" To this crucial question, only each individual can give the right answer, but in view of a premise stated earlier, that the returning Asian student stands between two worlds, the writer believes that the burden of the yoke resting on the student's shoulders can but point to one direction—the rightful role of the new member in changing the dimensions of an old world. Said Cicero, "He who, through fear of poverty, forfeits liberty which is better than mines of wealth will . . . be a slave forever."

Not too infrequently the returning Asian student realizes that there is little or no scope for using his knowledge immediately or in the near future. If adequate time and planning are expended and reasonable goals are set up, many a blind alley can be avoided. This planning should commence when one leaves one's motherland and continue through the period of visit to a foreign land until one returns home. This planning includes keeping in contact with people and publications at home, being aware of openings and blocks and being prepared to face all. If the student purposes well, his creativity, resourcefulness and ingenuity will open vistas for him. Although earning a livelihood may sometimes become a painful reality, every live organism moves toward a successful attainment of purposes. Instead of following the beaten path to government jobs, the returning Asian student can be a creator of new enterprises.

When he does arrive home, he will be subject to a critical evaluation by everyone—his porter, barber, tailor, by members of the family, by his colleagues, his subordinates, his boss and his neighbors. For every critic he will need infinite patience and understanding as each attempts to break him apart and put him together as he once knew him. If he can manage to adapt himself to the existing environment without offending the sensitivity of those who were left behind and without rushing innovations, he will have paved the first step to better times ahead.

For some students the problem may not lie in locating an appropriate job but in lack of cooperation from others. This is purely a case of human-relations techniques. This "educated, foreign-trained elite" will need to rid itself of status barriers, boastfulness and a desire to force changes. The best results will depend upon the returning student's sincerity and rapport with the people. Once the people have regained confidence in the newly returned Asian student, both will join hands.

For other Asian students, one of the snags may lie in not wishing to soil their hands. Many countries under colonial subjugation have given up, as a useless by-product, men and women ready for white collar jobs but not willing to till the ground, build a road or oil an engine. The slogan used in community development projects in India can well be kept in mind by the returning student: *Goan mangé do baat ek oojla man aur do mailé hath*, "the village needs two things, a spotless heart and two soiled hands."

To the underprivileged countries where the good things of life are scarce and prohibitive in price, where the lowliest is gasping for the very breath of

life as it were, this privileged returning student, who has had one of the best opportunities in life, owes a debt. It does not matter if he is an exchange student, a privately sponsored individual or on his own; he is what he is in terms of a collective life and a fraction in man's unity. And so, while he may have many problems to cope with, there are many more opportunities for him than for the millions in his country.

The successful returning Asian student has the exciting opportunity of wearing many hats – being many things to many people—without a dull moment. His is the opportunity to ferment change, to be the innovator, to be a leader or to be the nucleus of power from which strength and encouragement may flow. His is the opportunity to dream dreams, to be a visionary, to be a missionary in his own land. What does all this mean? Once again this will mean different things to different individuals. For some it will mean going over dirt roads into remote villages to be one with those who will till the land, raise fowls, rear bees, tend to livestock, and it will mean teaching these people better and quicker methods. Is it not a great opportunity to produce a field of rich, ripe harvest where once sickly crop and weeds grew? For some will await the task of healing the consumptive, the leper, the ricket-yaws- and beriberi-pestered and a million others. Is it not a privilege to use one's knowledge to relieve physical misery and watch a glow of healthy blood and joy flow among human veins? For some it will mean building bridges—and a bridge is itself an opportunity symbolized in concrete. For still others it will mean taking literacy to the dark corners of their country—and what greater opportunity or blessing is there in life than to give the gift of sight to the blind and of speech to the mute? For these illiterate millions are blind and mute if they cannot decipher the written word.

Besides being engaged in some major occupation for earning one's livelihood, there are myriad opportunities to be explored and utilized to supplement the privileges mentioned above. It is the returning Asian student's privilege to go out into his community and meet people, form service groups, clubs and organizations so that many may be enlightened and fruitfully engaged and that available resources be mobilized. One has heard too often that, "the rich get richer and the poor get poorer." Herein lies a potential opportunity to interest upper-class people in allaying the pains and miseries of the less fortunate. I am convinced that students, once exposed to the philanthropic organizations in every town and city of America, will find a similar sensi-

Mrs. Sano's studies at the Miami University prepared her for her job as program director of Asahi Broadcasting Company.

tivity within themselves to want to do great things. Besides such activity, a variety of academic, cultural and social groups can be set up. In many Asian countries the adolescent and the young adult have nothing to do; they often become stooges to leftists. These young people have no sawdust in their veins and would be just as eager to do things, go abroad and be as great as their heroes if they only knew how. The returning Asian student has much to offer the youth of his country.

In short, the sooner the returning Asian students return the debt they owe to their fellow men, the sweeter will be the dawn for our family of nations.

The problem for the returning student is to fight separation, fraction, isolation, diversion, segregation, ideological suppression, forced or voluntary serfdom. His opportunity is to pursue the path of peace; his task is to build for complete freedom. So take heart; break the fragments created by narrow walls of prejudice, ignorance, superstition and selfishness; strive ceaselessly; let reason guide you into ever-widening circles of thought and action. If John F. Kennedy can say to the people of his great and prosperous nation, "Ask not what your country can do for you—ask what you can do for your country," it can be said ten times over to every Asian. And the writer adds: Ask not what other countries can do for you—ask what you can do for them.

ALMA MATER STUDIORUM

SEBASTIANO MAZZARACCHIO

Dr. Mazzaracchio is Administrative Director of the University of Bologna in Italy, the oldest university in Europe.

The Rector's and Administrative Director's offices . . .

The University of Bologna, like that of Paris, was established some time during the twelfth century. It is impossible to set a precise date for the University's beginning, since there are no documents to show its official founding by the Emperor or the Pope. It is possible, however, to feel its existence at a given time and to realize that its fame has passed the boundaries not only of the Emilia region, but also of Italy, and has drawn considerable attention in all of Europe.

The beginning of the University of Bologna corresponded to the general spiritual awakening of all countries after the millenium. At this time, students left their homes in all parts of Europe, often accompanied by their families, to come to Bologna, the renowned center of learning. Parochial schools and independent schools, under the direction of private scholars, were already in existence in several Italian cities, but Bologna's educational institutions soon overshadowed those of other cities, due either to its possession of the Ravenna legal codes – which constituted the genuine source of Roman jurisprudence – or to its geographical and environmental character. An ever-increasing number of students and scholars were attracted to Bologna, and within a few decades, the University was generally acknowledged as the mother of law.

In approximately 1115, one teacher, Irnerio, rose above all others on the strength of his deep knowledge of legal sources and of his extraordinary pedagogical ability. His fame spread throughout Europe attracting throngs of students to his school. The School of the *Glossatori*, begun by Irnerio, carried on the teachings of this master for over 150 years.

In November 1158 Emperor Federico Barbarossa ("Redbeard"), acknowledging his esteem for the school's fame, granted protection, privileges and immunities to the students at Bologna. The Emperor recommended and ordered that students and teachers be welcomed, respected and protected everywhere. In addition he exempted them from the normal jurisdiction of the courts and, instead, made them subject to the authority of their teachers or to that of the bishop of the city.

Foreigners living in Bologna had lacked all juridical protection, since the statutes providing protection to the *Bolognesi* could not be applied to them. They, in turn, sought sufficient protection by grouping themselves in small societies called *Nationes*. The *Nationes* were based on home countries or common language and customs and were completely independent of civil or religious authority.

The *Nationes*, under common agreement, established their rights and duties, appointed their leaders and hired their teachers, who not only gave

in the Central University Building in Bologna.

The Collegio Di Spagna for scholars from Spain.

instruction, but could also grant proper persons a *licentia docendi*, a teaching certificate.

At the end of a scholar's studies (four years for medicine and liberal arts, six years for canon law and eight for civil law), he received his doctorate after passing a final examination. However, the formal granting of the degree, *laurea*, was reserved for the delegate of the pope. By means of this formal intervention, the *laurea* granted from both the Universities of Bologna and Paris entitled the graduates to teach not only at the university they had attended, but applied also to all other universities which might be established at a future time.

In about the year 1180, the Commune of Bologna forbade teachers to give lessons outside Bologna, in an attempt to avoid the emigration of academic "societies" from the town—which would have jeopardized the success of the University, already swelling with about 10,000 students. This ruling was interpreted as an attempt to destroy the independence of the societies, and, in order to protect themselves from future meddlings of the community, the students merged into two large associations. Thus, they established the *citramontani*—to which the Italian students at the University belonged—and the *ultramontani*—formed by the students of other countries. At the beginning of the following century, the medical students and the students of philosophy founded a third association—the *artisti*.

Each of the three associations appointed a leader, called *rettore*, who was aided by a central council formed by advisers. These three bodies, united by the same aims and interests, and motivated by a strong feeling of independence, together formed the *Universitas scolarium*.

The professors also tried to become organized. They, however, did not form a general association, but several councils which functioned as permanent examination committees. At first they established a Council for Civil Law and one for Canon Law. Later, a Council for Medicine and one for Liberal Arts was formed. From then on, examinations formerly entrusted to a single professor were conducted by the Councils.

The *Universitas scolarium* established a series of disciplinary rules to administer its internal life. These rules were coordinated into statutes which provided for appointing the rector and doctors; controlling examinations, and granting degrees, immunities, privileges and penalties. In the Middle Ages, these Bolognese statutes served as an example for the statutes of other universities in most of Europe. In fact, when, at the beginning of the thirteenth century teachers and students began to emi-

grate protesting the community's increased meddling into University matters, the statutes of the University of Bologna were adopted almost verbatim by the newly founded universities such as the University of Padua in Italy, the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge in England, the University of Montpellier in France and the University of Salamanca in Spain.

The highest authority in the three associations was the rector. He, however, was not a professor elected by other professors, as is true today, but a student nominated through free elections by other students belonging to the *Universitas*. Later, when professors were selected and paid by the commune, the authority of the rectors faded and the post became mostly an honorary one.

The establishment of foundations or *collegi*—students' residences which sponsored their studies—was brought about by an increasing desire of all social classes to better educate alert young men who could not afford a university education. Many of these foundations or residences are still in existence, the most famous of which is the *Collegio di Spagna,* founded by Cardinal Egidio Albornoz in 1364 and which still houses Spanish scholars working for their doctorates at the University of Bologna.

The University reached the apex of its fame in the thirteenth century. The three student associations facilitated the long-lived effort of the commune to list the University of Bologna among the city institutions by permitting the city to furnish the salaries of two professors who had before been paid through students' collections. Later, in the fourteenth century, the commune assumed the obligation to pay the salaries of all professors, which removed the students' right to select their professors. In this way, some of the most important functions of the rector passed over to the "Reformers," appointed by the commune.

When Bologna was acquired by the Church and turned into a papal state, the City Senate appointed a new body which supervised all university affairs. However, the basic structure of the university was left unchanged, and the three associations along with the three councils of professors were maintained. The University remained that way through the eighteenth century until the invasion of Napoleon, which witnessed a breaking up of all the extant medieval institutions.

The modern University of Bologna came into being with the reform of 1802 which instituted the three departments of law, medicine and science and introduced scientific institutes. The rector was chosen by the government from among the professors; and there were no tuition fees.

After the uniting of Italy, a new stage began, and the beneficial changes of this stage were witnessed within a few years. Many new institutes were established in fields such as agriculture, applied chemistry, business administration, economics, engineering and veterinary medicine. These institutes were later transformed into regular departments.

Today, the University of Bologna has 11 departments: agriculture, economics and commerce, education, engineering, industrial chemistry, jurisprudence, mathematics, medicine and surgery, philosophy and belles-lettres, physics and natural science and veterinary medicine. At the head of the University is the rector, who is elected by all the full professors. His staff is made up of the Academic Senate and the Council of Administration. The Academic Senate consists of the chairmen of the various departments and is concerned mostly with didactic and disciplinary matters. The Council is in charge of the administrative problems of the University and is formed by the representatives of several institutions plus some professors.

The curriculum of study varies from four to six years, according to the different specializations, and leads to a doctorate, which is not, however, sufficient to allow practice in the respective professions. Every department has specialized courses for graduate students, lasting from one to five years. Lectures are delivered by full professors and by assistant professors and are supplemented by seminars and practical demonstrations.

The clinics and institutes of the University number more than 100. Due to wartime damage, many of them have been rebuilt with modern or enlarged equipment to fit in with the new postwar needs and educational requirements. A vast, newer program of development is now under way, thanks to the financial help of both state and local institutions.

The student body at the University of Bologna is one of the largest in Italy, numbering well above 16,000. The students come from all over Italy and also from abroad, indicating the attraction to the oldest university in the world, the *Alma Mater Studiorum*. The foreign students come mostly from the United States, Central and South America, Africa and from other European countries.

After World War II, the students at the University organized themselves, democratically, into several associations. Every year they elect representatives to protect their interests before the academic authorities and the government. These student rep-

Originally a gymnasium, this room now has its walls lined with emblems of past rectors.

resentatives are interested in the problems of financial contributions to students and sports activities.

The University has deemed it necessary to reinforce, constantly, throughout the centuries, its cordial relationships with the institutes of learning abroad. Some years ago the University of Bologna offered its facilities to the School of Advanced International Studies of the Johns Hopkins University. At present the Johns Hopkins group in Bologna is housed in its own building, which was erected recently in the university area and was inaugurated last spring by the President of Johns Hopkins University, Dr. Milton Eisenhower.

There are currently plans for financial aid to students which should bring about great improvements. The project to build a number of residence houses where top students will be able to follow their studies in peace and tranquillity, free from financial worries, is being carried out with the help of the government as part of the important ten-year plan for the development of the education system.

One of the professors of the University of Bologna who has devoted much effort to the study of the vicissitudinous life of the university, Professor Carlo Calcaterra has said:

> The ancient university is always towering over the civil and the national life, faithful to its origins, aware of the needs of the modern age, as if the past, the present and the future could never be separated in its history.
>
> From a tiny root rose the giant tree: at first only a bud, then a young plant, finally a giant tree with enormous branches. Planted in very fertile soil, it underwent, with the varying seasons, constant changes, from a time of splendid blossoming to years of turmoil from wind and storm, but through the centuries perennially carrying forth its lymph and strength.

To Seek a Democratic Balance

RISIERI FRONDIZI

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The philosophy of education underlying university life in Latin America as it is today has its roots in the founding of the first Latin American universities —the University of Santo Domingo in 1538 and, 13 years later, the Universities of Mexico and Lima— just after Spain took possession of the continent.

The founders of these pioneer universities wanted to ensure two fundamental goals: the dominance of Spain—and later that of Portugal—upon these lands and the propagation of the Catholic faith. Both fundamental aims—one political and the other religious—can be found throughout the history of Latin American universities. The dominance of Spain, however, was replaced in the beginning of the nineteenth century by the new national spirit, and, at present, the Latin American universities are making strong efforts to strengthen their national character.

Though not as predominant as the political-national aim, the religious aspect has been maintained through the centuries. The first universities, founded by religious congregations, began a tradition still alive in Latin America. When the Church's political and spiritual influence began to decline, universities were founded openly by the Church in Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Equador, Peru and, more recently, Argentina.

The influence of the Catholic Church has been challenged by the advances and prestige of science,

The University of Concepción in Chile

by the arrival of other churches and, more recently, by the impact of the new philosophical and political theories. This is particularly true of Marxism, which denies the theological foundations of cultural, social and political life, and also of the free thinkers and the liberal movement of the last century which drove religious teaching away from the public schools.

In addition to the two main factors that have influenced Latin American universities through the centuries—the national idea and the influence of the Catholic Church—there are other forces determining the philosophy of education in Latin American universities. One is political in nature and concerns relations between the university and the state, and the others relate to the specific functions of the university—actual university life.

Public universities in all Latin American countries, with the exception of Brazil and Mexico, are national institutions connected with the Ministry of the Secretary of Education. There are also small numbers of private universities, more than half of which are Catholic sponsored. The fluctuating political history of Latin America has often modified the course of university affairs. Changes in government, whether by election or by *coup d'état* have given a great instability to the universities which have become, at times, servants of the political interests of the man or party in power or, more often, the stronghold for freedom, justice and democracy. In either case, the universities have had to postpone their specific missions because of political reasons. To alleviate this situation, the universities have tried to avoid the coming and going of men in power and have made efforts to ensure stability and continuity within the institutions themselves. The principle of university autonomy has been the leading principle of Latin American universities since the University Reform of Cordoba in 1918. University autonomy gives the institution the right to elect university authorities without interference; to appoint and dismiss faculty members and other university personnel; to create and suppress departments, schools and divisions, and to assume sole responsibility for all internal university affairs.

The struggle of Latin American universities to obtain autonomy is one of the most dramatic chapters in their history. The executive power, particularly, the president of the Republic, was not ready to give up an institution that could become the stronghold of the opposition. In general, the principle of university autonomy is now incorporated in the very first articles of the university laws, and in a few cases as a specific right in the national constitution.

In spite of the fact that university autonomy is already incorporated in some nations' laws, it is a fragile right. Even in Uruguay, a democratic country where university autonomy is recognized in the national constitution, there are frequent rumors of possible intervention in the university. There is no doubt that the principle of university autonomy will be, at least for several decades, the leading fighting idea of Latin American universities.

Another idea underlying the philosophy of Latin American education is that of developing a man of culture—an *hombre culto*—the Spanish version of the English "gentleman." The first universities were founded upon this principle. The universities were

Students relax on the campus of the University of the Andes in Bogotá, Colombia.

to develop an educated elite from which government and public leaders were to be drawn; this idea of an aristocracy and of a privileged elite has remained in the philosophy of Latin American universities until recent times.

With new economic and social changes in many of the Latin American countries came a great need for physicians, engineers, lawyers and professionals. The universities decided to "manufacture" such professionals, a change which has been good for some countries but bad for many universities. Since this change in educational orientation, a great many universities have become nothing more than a name for a group of professional schools, and more than one career in scientific research has been stifled as a result. The few exceptions who did enter research fields and the European scientists who were wisely brought to Latin America comprise the forefathers of Latin American science.

In the more developed countries, the philosophy of professionalism is being overcome, and vigorous and promising scientific development is being encouraged. The change in university policy from professionalism to scientific development involved not only a separation from the closed circles of professionals, but the opposition of a humanistic tradition also had to be overcome.

The debate between science and the humanities has lasted for a long time and has occurred throughout the world. In Latin America, people have begun to understand that it is a false and misleading conflict. Science does not deny or exclude the humanities but complements them. The friction between science and the humanities has been reduced to a minimum by the happy coincidence that the movement in favor of the development of science has been encouraged by rectors who are humanists.

In Latin America the university is an institution of higher education where there is no place for useful things lacking scientific or humanistic interest such as home economics, shorthand, typing and subjects of that nature. The European tradition is still part of Latin American university philosophy. This attitude, however, should not be confused with the new national philosophy which tries to make the university an instrument for the material and spiritual improvement of the country.

Without neglecting the traditional and specific university missions, and without lowering the standards, the university is trying, today, to take care of the material and cultural needs of the people. Hence, the Latin American university no longer has an aristocratic ideal and, without falling into the easy and dangerous grounds of demagogy, is trying to reach the democratic balance with the hope of becoming an institution of the people for the people.

CAMPUS AT KANDY

SWARNA JAYAWEERA

The author is a member of the Department of Education at the University of Ceylon.

The first University of Ceylon stands on the banks of a river that winds around the ancient capital hill of Kandy. Half the university population now lives on the Kandy campus which sprawls across hundreds of acres, while three of the six faculties are 70 miles away in the heart of the capital city, Colombo.

Although no longer the only university in Ceylon, the University was the first, and its history goes back to 1870 when the Ceylon Medical College was established in Colombo. The educational structure of nineteenth century Ceylon was so closely modeled on the British system that secondary education ended with examinations of the University of Cambridge, and many students who wished to proceed to higher studies had to cross the seas to foreign universities.

Agitation for a University of Ceylon was part of the nationalist aspirations of the twentieth century, as is illustrated by a quotation from one of the early advocates of the University:

> It will be the chief aim of the Ceylon University, while making efficient provision for the study of English and the assimilation of Western culture, to take care that our youth do not grow up strangers to their mother tongue and to their past history and traditions.

The result of this agitation was the establishment of Ceylon University College in 1921, in Colombo, to prepare students for degrees of the University of London. Although the College produced 580 graduates in arts and sciences between 1921 and 1942 and provided higher education to many who could not otherwise have afforded it, its curriculum was divorced from national needs. The demand for a full-fledged residential university persisted until on July 1, 1942, the University of Ceylon was established with the Ceylon Medical College and the Ceylon University College as its nucleus.

World War II delayed the University's move to Peradeniya where 363 acres of land had been acquired, and under the direction of the British architect, Sir Patrick Abercrombie, the University began to take shape with buildings incorporating some of the features of traditional Ceylonese art. During the tenure of office of the first Vice-Chancellor, Sir Ivor Jennings, the original four faculties—arts, medicine, oriental studies and science—were increased to six with the addition of the faculty of agriculture and veterinary science and the faculty of engineering. Several new departments such as law and education also were begun.

The six faculties include 43 departments. The departments of the faculty of oriental studies are Arabic, Pali and Buddhist civilization, Sanskrit, Sinhalese and Tamil. The faculty of arts includes archaelogy, economics, education, English, geography, history, law, modern languages (Western), philosophy, sociology and Western classics. The science faculty is composed of the departments of botany, chemistry, mathematics, physics and zoology. The departments of the faculty of medicine are anatomy, bacteriology, biochemistry, dental surgery, forensic medicine, gynecology, medicine, obstetrics, parasitology, pathology, pediatrics, pharmacology, physiology, public health and surgery. The faculty of engineering has departments of civil engineering, electrical engineering and mechanical engineering, and the faculty of agriculture and veterinary science includes departments of agriculture, animal husbandry, veterinary anatomy and veterinary science.

A recent commission has recommended the addition of departments of commerce, comparative religions, fine arts, forestry, geology, music and psychology.

The academic staff is composed of 37 professors, four readers, 121 lecturers and 67 assistant lecturers. A large number of visiting lecturers (who are leading physicians and surgeons) assist in the medical faculty with lectures and ward work.

Members of the university's staff, in most cases, are recruited on a probationary basis as assistant lecturers. After two years' service they are sent abroad for postgraduate training after which they

A section of Ceylon University at Peradeniya

are confirmed in service as lecturers. Members of the permanent staff receive one year's paid leave abroad every seven years.

Today the faculties of oriental studies, arts (including the law and education departments) and agriculture and veterinary science and the department of dentistry are at Peradeniya, and the faculties of medicine, science and engineering are in Colombo. The engineering faculty is due to move to Peradeniya very soon, but although there are new science buildings in Peradeniya and a medical school is being planned, it is possible that the Colombo faculties will continue due to the increasing demand for scientific personnel. The University has its own dental hospital, but the medical faculty uses the government hospital in Colombo. A hospital is planned for the university's second medical school at Peradeniya.

One of the basic goals of the early planners of the University was to relate the country's educational system to its national needs. They wished to organize university programs which would promote serious study of the country's languages, literature, history and philosophy, and would facilitate improving rural conditions through the study of agriculture. The local environment was emphasized.

Apart from the role of the University in the economic, social and cultural development of Ceylon, it has two other main aims. It seeks to advance knowledge and to disseminate information through lectures, research, publication of research findings in books and periodicals (the University publishes *The University of Ceylon Review*, *The Ceylon Journal of Science* and *The Ceylon Journal of Medical Science*) and through public lectures, plays and various forms of extension work.

The University aims to offer its students the best possible education. It not only provides opportunities for the acquisition of factual knowledge, but also attempts to develop an inquiring atmosphere to stimulate mental growth. The University is concerned with developing students' interests and character and, therefore, pays due attention to the educational value of activities such as debates, fine arts and sports. The University fully realizes its responsibilities in educating leaders in every walk of life. The plan for a completely residential University at Peradeniya was conceived with the hope that the self-discipline engendered by the social organization of the University – and the very act of living and working together–would make it a most effective school of citizenship.

Although the University is divided between Colombo and Peradeniya, in its present transitional stage, it is a unitary institution with no affiliated colleges. It was intended to be a completely residential university, but due to the increasing demand for university education this goal may not be realized.

The University is open to both sexes and to all races, creeds and classes.

Only one-tenth of its income is from endowments and gifts; the remainder comes from a government grant. However, it is not a government institution, but an autonomous corporation made up of a chancellor, pro-chancellor, vice-chancellor, a court, a council and senate. The chancellor is the governor general, and the pro-chancellor is the minister of education. The vice-chancellor is a full-time, paid, academic and executive officer elected by the court. Financial and legislative control is vested in the court on which Parliament and various academic and professional bodies are represented. The council is the executive body and the Senate controls and directs academic matters.

The University has its own health unit, works department, press and supply organization. The University Health Service consists of three medical officers. At Peradeniya there is a fully equipped and staffed clinic. A Public Health Inspector is responsible for the maintenance of environmental sanitation. Four marshalls guard the safety of person and property at Peradeniya, and the Board of Residence and Discipline is responsible for the welfare of students and for discipline.

The minimum age at which a student can enter the University is 17. Admission is based on the results of a competitive entrance test, the University Preliminary Examination. For this examination, each candidate must sit for four subjects according to the faculty he or she wishes to enter, as well as submit a general paper. On the whole, admission is severely restricted, owing to lack of accommodation. This year only 1,114 students have been selected for admission from 5,277 candidates, and because of the University Senate's decision to award external degrees for the first time, 723 more students were accepted for registration for these degrees. However, in a short time, these 723 students were admitted to lectures and found lodgings near the campus.

During 1960-61 there were 3,684 students at the University of Ceylon – 2,548 men and 1,136 women. The proportion of men students to women students is now 2.2 : 1, whereas it was 8.2 : 1 when the University was first established. Since the majority of

The arts building – part of the original University at Kandy

women students as men students at Peradeniya. Half arts and oriental studies, there are almost as many women students as men students at Peradeniya. Half the students are from the Western Province (which includes Colombo).

During the academic year 1960-61 student distribution according to courses was as follows:

Course	Number of Students
Arts degree	1,550
Medical degree	940
Science degree	579
Engineering degree	249
Dental degree	35
Law degree	30
Agricultural degree	21
Veterinary Science degree	16
Higher degrees	31
Diploma in Education	71
Diploma in Sinhalese and Tamil	27
General students	6

The scheme of free education from kindergarten to the university has brought an increasing number of students from the lower socio-economic classes to the University of Ceylon. About ten per cent of the students receive financial assistance in the form of

bursaries or free board in addition to the regular free instruction.

There are 1,756 students in the Peradeniya faculties and 1,928 in the Colombo faculties. The Peradeniya students—with the exception of the postgraduate students of education who are allowed to reside outside the campus—live in eight residence halls, five for men and three for women. The 17 Buddhist *Bhikkhus* (monks) studying at Peradeniya have their own hostel. Three University hostels and two denominational hostels provide accommodation for a very small proportion of the Colombo students.

Since the inception of the University, 5,812 degrees have been awarded. In 1960, 596 degrees were awarded. All medical degrees awarded by the University are recognized by the General Medical Council of England. There are two sections in the arts and science degrees—section A for those who take a general degree in three subjects and section B for those who specialize in one subject. Master's degrees and doctorates are awarded in every faculty.

The University provides one-year postgraduate diploma courses in anesthesia, child health, education (for graduate teachers), medicine, obstetrics, surgery and tropical medicine and hygiene. A new course in librarianship has just been initiated. Diploma courses in Sinhalese and Tamil also are provided for non-graduates.

An extramural studies department has been proposed, but little extension work has yet been undertaken by the University. The Department of Education, however, has organized refresher courses for teachers. External degrees are to be awarded beginning next year.

Since July 1960 lectures have been given in three languages—Sinhalese, Tamil and English.

Reading facilities are provided by a library containing 135,121 volumes. An intensive course in English is given to new entrants to enable them to make full use of the library.

The number of societies which flourish in the University illustrate the wide range of activities open to students. There are "subject" societies such as the chemical, philosophical, geographical, sociological, Sinhalese and Tamil societies; cultural organizations such as the dramatic societies; social service societies, and religious and political societies catering to every persuasion. The University Arts Council organizes film showings three times a week at Peradeniya.

Student organizations are allowed freedom, and no restrictions are placed on political parties. Every hall of residence has its own council, and the student council is representative of the entire student body. The student council and the Colombo Union Societies receive a grant from the University to enable them to carry on their activities.

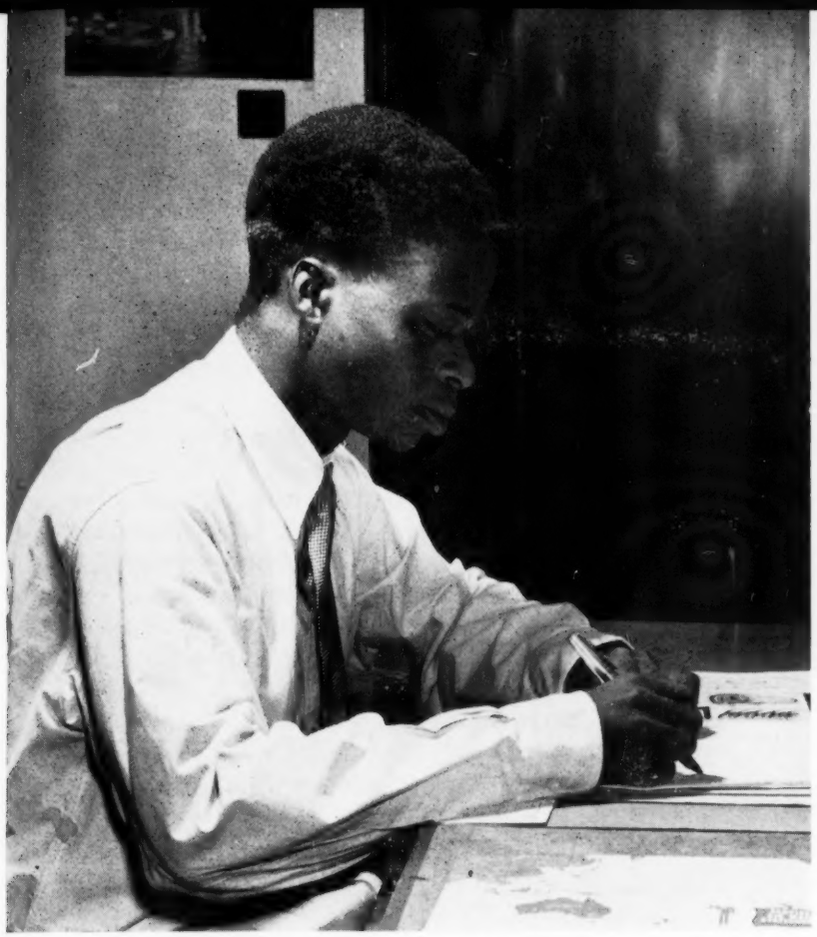
There is a gymnasium for sports activities, and facilities are provided for athletics under the guidance of a director of physical education, badminton, basketball, boxing, cricket, football, hockey, netball, table tennis, tennis, volleyball and wrestling. Interest in sports is stimulated through intramural and interfaculty meets, national meets and in Indian University tournaments.

The University of Ceylon which was planned for 1,000 students will have to be expanded to provide for an enrollment of 4,000 students at Peradeniya and 1,000 at Colombo. It no longer caters to a social elite. It has produced the personnel to man various professions, and it has undertaken some research. Most of all, it has helped to localize the curriculum of schools by its emphasis on Ceylon's history and geography, government and oriental languages, and it has led to the introduction of a valuable feature in secondary schools, the sixth form.

Although two new universities have recently been created and more may possibly be established, the University of Ceylon still has a valuable contribution to make, especially in view of the rich store of experience it has garnered in the last two decades. The University can not only help to preserve Ceylon's cultural heritage, but can also become a center of research in Asian Studies. It can aid the transition to the use of national languages through the publication of books, translations and glossaries of technical terms and through its graduates who will enter public service and the educational field.

In an underdeveloped country like Ceylon, the need for skilled personnel for industrial development and for medical and other services and the need for research on local problems provide a challenge to the University. The University can help to promote the responsibility and leadership essential to the progress of a young nation, and through its extension work it can disseminate new knowledge among the large masses who may never enter the portals of the University, but who are, nonetheless, in need of advancement.

The University of Ceylon was begun at a formative period in the country's development, and its early years have witnessed many social changes. The provision of free education in 1945, the change in the medium of instruction from English to the national languages, the political independence obtained in 1948 and the slowly changing economy have helped to cast the University in a new role.



A student works in his room at Lovanium University.

A Precious Legacy

BARBARA A. YATES

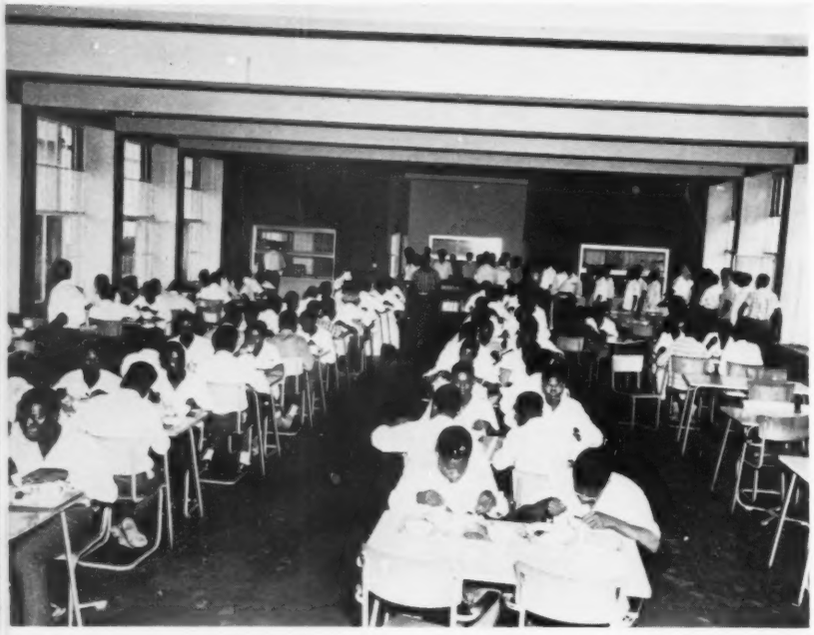
Barbara A. Yates has served with the U.S. Information Agency in Southeast Asia and in Africa. During the past year she was Cultural Affairs Officer at the U.S. Embassy in Leopoldville.

West Central Africa is a huge area—a region of contrast between peoples, customs, languages and economic and geographic environments. Here are some of Africa's most primitive tribal villages where people, hardly aware of the existence of any modern civilization, live in a Stone Age culture, and perhaps less than 100 miles away rises a modern electrified city. It is an area with over 100 major tribal groupings speaking almost 1,000 different languages and dialects; the Congo alone being said to have over 400, with linguists still finding more. It is an area of newly independent nations with different colonial heritages and institutions and scores of political affiliations and ideologies.

In this land of long crocodile-filled rivers; of dark, wet, tropical forests and wide rolling savannahs which give way to deserts and high snow-capped mountains and green highlands with clear mountain streams, some of the region's inhabitants earn their living as typists, machine-tool operators, store clerks, mechanics and now ministers of state, while kinfolk practice shifting cultivation and hunt with spears, bows and arrows.

The six French-speaking national units of this area—Chad and the Central African Republic, the Congo Federated Republic, Gabon, Republic of the Congo, Ruanda-Urundi—must find a way to build a common national identity and a common social and political unity to bridge these diversities. One of the major methods will be the rapid and widespread development of education. Not only must education reach the great bulk of the population, but African leadership must be developed. This leadership will come in increasing numbers from the recently founded local university institutions.

Four universities serve this area of almost 2,000 million square miles and 24 million people, almost ten per cent of the continent's population. In the Federated Congo Republic, Lovanium University in Leopoldville has just completed its seventh academic year and the Katanga State University, its fifth. Katanga State University was founded in 1956 as the Official University of the Belgian Congo and Ruanda-Urundi and was reorganized under its present name in October 1960, in Elisabethville. The Center for Higher Education (Centre d'Enseignement Supérieur) in Brazzaville, serving the four former territories of French Equatorial Africa, has just finished its second academic year and the Jesuit-organized University Center (Centre Universitaire) at Usumbura in the Belgian-administered United Nations Trusteeship Territory of Ruanda-Urundi, its first



The student cafeteria on the 650-acre campus of Lovanium

academic year. Along with the University of Dakar in Senegal they constitute the French-speaking universities of sub-Sahara Africa.

Lovanium University, a quiet, sprawling, Catholic-run campus has continued its task of educating a small Congolese elite, amid international dispute and local disorder. The University, occupying a 650-acre campus atop Mont Amba, dominates not only the skyscraper-dotted capital city of Leopoldville eight miles away, but also is by far the leading intellectual center in this area of Africa. In 1953 Mont Amba was little different from its neighboring weed-covered hills. Today, in little less than eight years, the hilltop has been transformed into one of the most modern and best-equipped university campuses in Africa.

There are new classroom buildings, a university hospital, faculty homes, student dormitories, sports facilities and a library containing one of the most complete collections of African materials, published in more than a dozen countries and in at least five different languages. The University boasts the first atomic reactor (U. S. made) on the continent. A busy campus extracurricular life of evening concerts, films, dances, sports matches, lectures and conferences gives the University a sense of spirit, movement and cohesiveness.

In sharp contrast, the secular Katanga State University, since its founding in 1956, has followed a pattern similar to that of many municipal colleges in the United States; there is no central campus—the buildings in use being scattered throughout the city. During 1960, however, the University was able to acquire a 1,296-acre tract four miles from the center of Elisabethville, but the secession of the province from the central government following independence, the unsettled security conditions and the support of a large mercenary army forced postponement of construction.

Both the Center for Higher Education in Brazzaville and the University Center at Usumbura utilize facilities of the largest high school in their respective cities. The Center for Higher Education has obtained land in the city and will begin to build a permanent campus, and as each building is finished, classes will move to the new site. The University Center in Usumbura, without governmental financial assistance in its first year, found it impossible to obtain the necessary funds to establish its own campus. It is hoped that in 1961-62, as the Center expands in enrollment and program, the Belgian government will subsidize a building program. As these two university centers are in their infancy, they have had little time to develop real university communities in spirit and facilities.

Entrance requirements at all four institutions are identical with those of universities in Belgium or France. In general, a broad, cultural secondary background with emphasis on languages and literature or mathematics is required. University matriculation is merely a continuation of a highly selective process begun in the secondary schools. Although about 70 per cent of Congo and Ruanda-Urundi high school graduates go on to universities, only about 25 per cent of those pupils who enter the seventh grade finish the twelfth grade.

In the Congo Federated Republic and in Ruanda-Urundi the three institutions of higher education form the apex of a six-year secondary cycle which has followed six years of primary school. The secondary system is further complicated by the existence of a dual curriculum. There is one set of schools mainly for European students (African students have been admitted in small numbers since 1952 when the system was desegregated) which offers the Belgian metropolitan curriculum and a parallel set of schools which enroll the majority of African secondary students and offer a less-intensive program. This dual system has necessitated the creation of a one-year preparatory (pre-university) section at each of the three universities, to bring African students coming from the less-intensive high schools up to the same academic level as those few Africans and their more numerous European colleagues

who have attended the metropolitan-standard high schools. These three universities accept all students who have finished the African six-year secondary program into their pre-university sections, but only those from metropolitan-standard high schools are admitted directly into the university faculties.

Since there is no dual secondary system in former French African territories—all students having followed the same curriculum as in metropolitan France—admission requirements at the Center for Higher Education in Brazzaville are far less confusing and complex. A complete baccalaureate, representing seven years of secondary school following a six-year primary cycle, is required for admission to the university.

The four universities are organized in a manner similar to Belgian or French universities. Each is divided into faculties equivalent to schools or colleges, and the four-year undergraduate programs culminate in the *licence* degree. Programs in agriculture and engineering require five years and those in medicine seven. Lovanium University is presently the only degree-granting institution of the four, although the former Official University had its first graduating class, which included two Congolese students, on the eve of independence. Lovanium University was originally established by the Catholic University of Louvain in Belgium, and the Katanga State University is receiving varied assistance from the three Belgian secular universities. The Center for Higher Education in Brazzaville is closely affiliated with the national educational system of France.

Lovanium University has eight faculties (medicine, law, theology, philosophy and letters, sciences, social sciences, engineering and agriculture) and an Institute of Psychology and Education.

The Katanga State University offered lower division work during 1960-61 in three faculties: philosophy and letters (including pre-law), education and social sciences, sciences (including pre-engineering, pre-agriculture and pre-medicine) and the first two years of the four-year medical school. Plans have already been announced to expand the university program each year until the full degree program is in effect by 1963-64. As emphasis has been placed on depth rather than breadth of program, university authorities postponed the opening of certain departments little frequented by African students and instead stressed the rapid preparation of doctors and engineers.

The Jesuit-organized University Center at Usumbura opened its first academic year with one faculty, philosophy and letters, and included freshman-year programs in pre-law and the social sciences. Em-

The Administration Building of Lovanium University

phasis has been given to the preparation of secondary school teachers, and the University Center plans to offer a sophomore year in 1961-62 in the same fields and to add a faculty of sciences.

Two other institutions of higher education, a Teacher Training Institute (Institut St. Jerome) and a Higher Technical Institute for Social Welfare (Institut Technique Supérieur d'Etudes Sociales), exist in the Congo in Elisabethville offering terminal two- or three-year specialized programs. Before independence there were seven such institutes: two in business and public administration, three in social welfare and two for teacher training, but only two survived the vicissitudes of independence. These institutes are entirely separate from the two Congo universities, although the entrance requirements of the Teacher Training Institute are identical with those of the Katanga State University.

The Belgians introduced into the Congo a concept of the university as sheltering only a limited range of programs on a narrow academic plane. This policy has made the Congo universities inflexible since independence and little able to meet the demands of an independent nation which wants to prepare itself rapidly for its new responsibilities. The two Congo universities have been reluctant to utilize their excess capacity of classrooms, laboratory facilities and faculty and to spread their administrative wing over any but the most traditional university disciplines. They say that if foreign institutions with large student bodies accept several hundred students with lower academic preparation the intellectual tone and standards will not be affected, but that if Lovanium University, for example, with only several hundred regular students was to do so, its academic atmosphere would be altered. In recent weeks there have been indications that this narrow policy may change. If the Congo universities do not make such concessions soon, their continued existence under their present management may well become open to question. Other considerations aside, these newly independent nations feel they cannot afford the luxury of such narrow centers of learning and if experience in other African nations is any indication, these new African governments will not tolerate for long institutions they consider ill-suited to their new hopes and aspirations.

The Center for Higher Education in Brazzaville has followed a different pattern of development. It has divided its program into two very different sections, both administered by one management, utilizing the same campus and sharing the same teaching faculty.

The first section *(enseignement supérieur)* includes three university faculties or schools: science and letters, both offering one year's work toward the *licence* degree, and law offering a full four-year program. Students who complete this first year in science of letters are now sent to France to complete the remaining work toward the *licence*.

The second and larger section, a technical institute (Centre d'Etudes Administratives et Techniques Supérieures—CEATS) offers a variety of specialized programs at both the secondary and post-secondary level leading to special certificates. The majority of the CEATS programs, given in five divisions (public administration and law, education, medico-social welfare, business and technology and art), comprise accelerated training at the secondary level for mature students, requiring only the completion of the tenth grade or equivalent to qualify for the competitive entrance examinations.

Using the method of chronological comparison between educational systems as a basis, the CEATS programs in education, industrial technology and public health education require students to have completed five or six years of general or specialized secondary education to be eligible to sit for the entrance examinations. These programs provide two to three years of additional terminal education, comparable to many U.S. junior college terminal programs. However, typical of the European system of education, the curricula of these programs, although designed to prepare technicians and teachers, emphasize academic lectures and devote little time to practical application as compared to similar U.S. junior college programs.

The Center hopes in eight or ten years to have the facilities, staff and sufficient students to offer a full degree-granting university program and at the same time to expand the current offerings of the CEATS into a full technical institute as part of the future university.

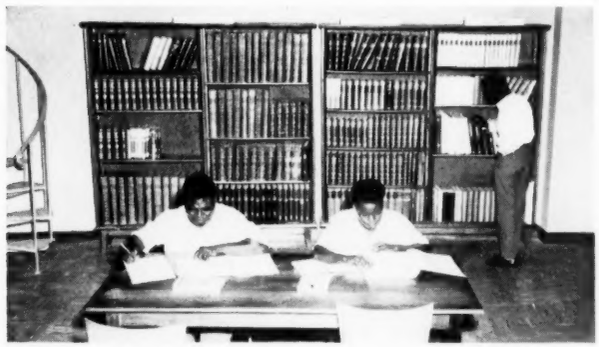
The program content at all four institutions is more theoretical and specialized than similar programs in U.S. universities with, generally, far less time devoted to laboratory training and field work. Specialization begins with the freshman year, and programs in the professional and scientific fields are devoted exclusively to specialized courses.

The desire to maintain standards equivalent to those in European universities has not been limited to selection, but is maintained throughout the collegiate program. Examinations are held only at the end of each year, and the student's entire academic career hinges upon the successful passing of these

tests. The drop-out rate in the past at the Congo universities has been high and, according to the November 1958, *Rapport sur l'année academique 1957-1958* of the Université Officielle du Congo Belge et du Ruanda-Urundi, frequently as many as 50 per cent of the students fail the year-end examinations. Some who view the program might say that this obsession with any infringement on standards (which can sometimes be translated merely as aversion to change) is perhaps over-emphasized to the detriment of flexibility and increased enrollments in already under-utilized physical plants.

The numbers had constantly been increasing prior are interracial and international and in principle co-educational, although the first woman high school graduate in the Congo and Ruanda-Urandi did not receive her diploma until June 1961.

The late development of general secondary educa-



Lovanium's library contains one of the most complete collections of African reading matter.

tion, the highly selective standards of university admission born of the dual educational system and the frequently over-severe examination standards have caused enrollment at the two Congo universities to be particularly low.

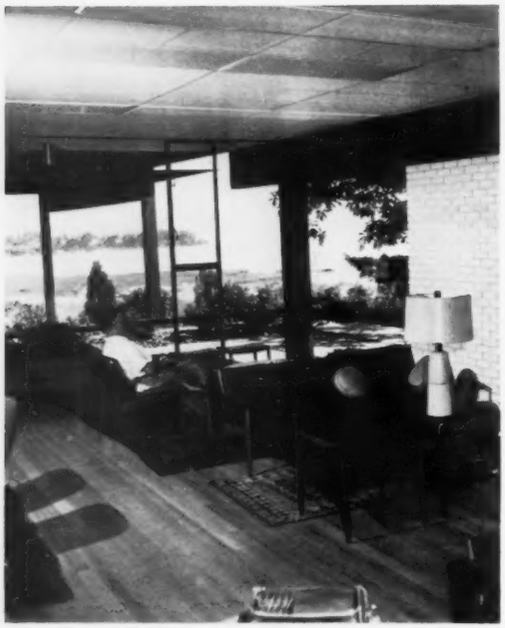
The numbers had constantly been increasing prior to independence, and in 1960-61 there were 409 students (381 African and 28 non-African) at Lovanium and 92 regular students (47 African and 45 non-African) at the Katanga State University. The University Center at Usumbura had 31 students, an enrollment similar to that of Lovanium University during its first academic year. The pre-university sections at these three institutions, however, accounted for 35 per cent to 45 per cent of total African enrollments. The Center for Higher Education had a total of 19 students in the university section (9 in letters, 5 in science and 5 in law) and 351 students in the CEATS of whom 94 were in the three post-secondary programs (79 in education, 4 in industrial technology and 11 in public health education).

The low enrollment represents primarily the paucity of secondary school graduates, but the post-independence drop in enrollment at the two Congo universities (from 485 at Lovanium and 276 at the former Official University before independence) is due mainly to the exodus of European and Ruanda-Urundi students following the local disorders and to the large number of African students who have accepted scholarships for foreign study particularly in Belgium. There were also more than 200 students from the four countries served by the Center for Higher Education studying in French universities.

Enrollment in the next five years is expected by university authorities to increase rapidly. By 1966 the Center for Higher Education plans on 100 students in the three university faculties and some 160 in the three junior-college level programs which together with the secondary level programs will give a total student body of about 700. Lovanium University has capacity for at least 200 more students and with the construction of additional dormitories could accommodate up to 1,500 students. The Katanga State University hopes to at least double its enrollment next year and when its permanent campus is finished to accommodate several hundred. Only the University Center at Usumbura still lacks provision for a large, permanent campus and greatly increased enrollments.

These four universities, although young in development, have a large contribution to make to the successful development of the large area they serve. The older two Congo universities have already made large contributions; 18 of the 26 Congolese college graduates at independence were from Lovanium University and two from the former Official University. Half of the Commissioners in the interim-Mobutu government, which in late 1960 brought some degree of order to the strife-torn country, were students or graduates of Lovanium University. The first degrees are expected in July 1963 from the reorganized Katanga State University and in July 1964 from the Faculty of Law of the Center for Higher Education and the University Center, if facilities are expanded as planned. While many adjustments in course content have been made since independence, more will undoubtedly be required to make these truly African institutions.

These six young African nations have inherited a precious legacy of which they can be proud. They must realize, however, that all developments of a useful and lasting nature cannot be realized without some passage of time and input of thought, experience and energy.



Inside the faculty center at the University of Washington

The recent demands for increased higher education have created a need for new buildings and facilities. Some of the established universities, such as the University of Washington in Seattle, are attempting to blend modern architecture with old. The faculty center (see pictures at left and below), designed by Paul Hayden Kirk and Associates and Victor Steinbrueck, has wood decorations taken from the faculty club which was built in 1909.

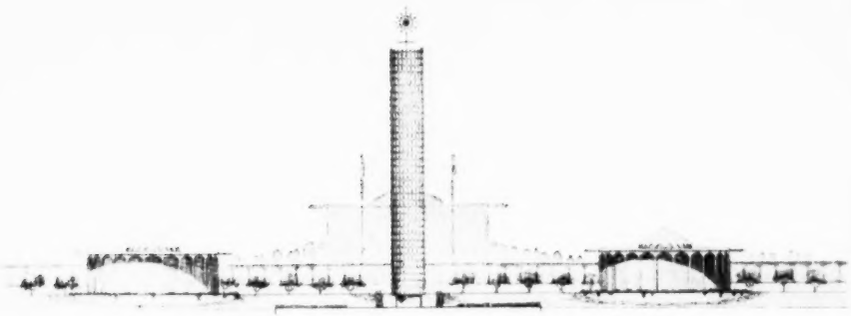
The newer universities have consulted many of the world's outstanding architects to design contemporary buildings for them. Eero Saarinen outlined the first plan for Brandeis University in Waltham, Mass.; Max Abramovitz is chief architectural consultant. His firm Harrison and Abramovitz designed the Rabb Graduate Center (lower left) which houses offices and classrooms. The building's circular lounge is used for informal lectures, concerts and a meeting place for graduate students. Edward D. Stone was asked to design a concrete and glass campus for the International College of Beirut, Lebanon (see right center).

Modern University Architecture

Brandeis University's Rabb Graduate Center

Side view of the University of Washington's faculty center

Arts faculty buildings at the University College of the West Indies



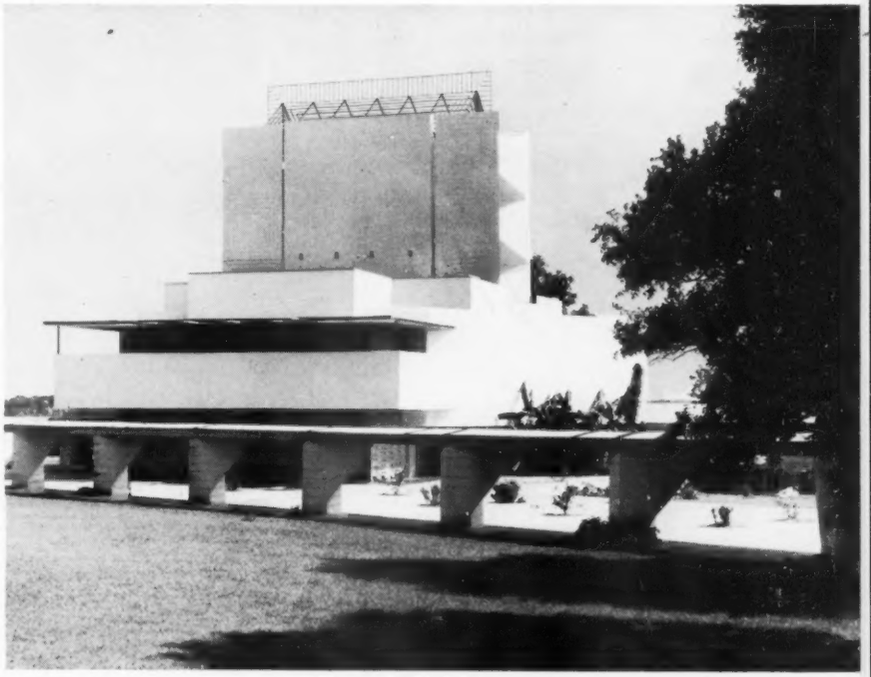
A section of the plan for International College, Lebanon

Women's residence hall at the University of Colorado

Modern university architecture in the British West Indies may be found in Jamaica at the University College (above) of the West Indies, where all the buildings are constructed to appear light and airy.

The University of Colorado's buildings (upper right) of laminated stone fit into their rugged mountain setting. Colorado's campus was designed by Day and Klauder while the largest group of buildings designed by Frank Lloyd Wright is at Florida Southern College (see right).

Hebrew University, pictured on page 30, in Jerusalem, Israel, was planned basically by Kaufman, Klarwein and Rau, but the buildings are designed by many architects. The administration building of reinforced concrete is covered with polished stones. Mosaics, murals, sculpture and frescoes decorate the interior. The campus is planned for a student body double its present size.



The Annie Pfeiffer Chapel at Florida Southern College

The Administration Building of Hebrew University

Interior of Wise Auditorium at Hebrew University

CLASSROOMS FOR WORLD CITIZENS

STEPHEN K. BAILEY

Stephen K. Bailey is Dean of the Maxwell School.

The Maxwell School of Syracuse University is a nationally recognized faculty of nearly 100 members who are divided into six departments (economics, geography, history, philosophy, political science and sociology and anthropology) and who make it their business to meddle in each others affairs for an extraordinary range of interdepartmental enterprises.

The Doctor of Social Science Program was created for college social science teachers who prefer a "doctorate in breadth," and five distinct public administration programs were designed as preparation for the public service at all levels of government and for the education of executive leaders. Other interdepartmental programs include area study programs in Russian and Latin American studies with a summer program in Asian studies; a program in American civilization and culture; a metropolitan studies program; an international relations program, and four separate programs for overseas training and research which provide opportunities for Syracuse graduate students to work overseas as a regular part of their graduate study.

In addition to these programs, the Maxwell faculty teaches the full-time equivalent of 4,200 students in undergraduate social science courses, including an interdepartmental introduction to public affairs at the freshman level. The faculty also teaches and advises 600 graduate students: candidates for the Master of Arts, the Master of Public Administration, the Doctor of Philosophy, the Doctor of Public Administration and the Doctor of Social Science degrees. Plus these functions, the Maxwell school serves as a million-dollar research center in the fields of social sciences, public policy, government operations and international affairs.

Syracuse University began as a privately-endowed liberal arts college, founded in 1870 by the Methodist Episcopal Church with financial help from the city of Syracuse. Today, Syracuse University has 18 degree-granting schools and colleges. Typical of U.S. universities, Syracuse University includes several undergraduate colleges; a graduate school with programs beyond the level of a bachelor's degree and leading to a Master's or doctorate degree, and various professional schools.

In the undergraduate division, there are the Schools of Architecture, Art, Education, Journalism, Music, Nursing and Speech and Dramatic Arts, and the Colleges of Business Administration, Engineering, Forestry, Home Economics and Liberal Arts.

The Graduate School, the College of Law, the School of Library Science, the Graduate School of Education and the School of Social Work and the Maxwell Graduate School of Citizenship and Public Affairs comprise the graduate division of the University.

The most significant emphasis which threads Maxwell's work is based on a belief that the fundamental job of a teacher is teaching. This statement would be almost a ludicrous tautology if it were not for the unfortunate fact that teaching is sometimes looked upon by university professors as a necessary distraction from what they consider more important things; and the Maxwell faculty is 100 teachers who are frequently distracted by less important things. Everyone teaches at Maxwell, from the dean through all his junior colleagues; likewise, everyone at Maxwell who participates in the social scientist's "way of life" not only teaches but also participates in either private or programmed research activities which serve first and foremost as contributing factors in the individual's teaching competence. As Maxwell has become increasingly involved in a wide range of domestic and foreign affairs, the most obvious harvest it has reaped is in the school's expanded

course offerings and the increased scope of in-depth advice available to graduate students.

The prefixes "inter-," "trans-," "cross-" and "multi-" are much in use at Maxwell. The problems in the real world of public affairs never fit neatly the categories into which, for convenience and for systematic study, man has divided his wisdom and his guesses about the way men live together. Graduate work in whatever Maxwell program or department is an opportunity to share the excitement of the frontiers of social science research with men and women who are accustomed to thinking of society as a whole. This concept has been with the Maxwell School for a long time.

At its inception, Maxwell was "inter-." In 1924 we began to work in two capacities, undergraduate and graduate. Primarily, the school was responsible for a course in citizenship required of all students at Syracuse University. With many changes (the very process of revising the citizenship course has tickled the intellectual sensitivities of the University for decades) this course has survived to the present although it is now elective. Secondly, the School began to train graduate students for the public service —hence the Maxwell Graduate School of Citizenship and Public Affairs. Public service training has continued and will continue to receive special attention.

A few facts about our public administration alumni should give an indication of our successes. Fewer than 700 degrees in public administration have been granted by Maxwell since 1924. Yet among this number there are approximately 50 city managers and more than 100 branch or division chiefs of governmental agencies. In the past, most public administration graduates who sought government employment found it with federal government; recently, however, graduates have been finding local government increasingly attractive. This is one explanation for the desire to expand our metropolitan areas activities. At the present time, roughly half the alumni is with some governmental organization. A breakdown of the other half reveals many private business careers, a few "unknowns" and "deceased," and half a hundred housewives who, I feel confident, live in superbly administered households.

On September 1, Maxwell's fourth dean took office. Three deans in 37 years indicates the stability which has promoted the school's rapid expansion. There would have been even less of a turnover had New York's Governor Harriman and President Kennedy not raided the School in their search for personnel to fill key executive positions. The Maxwell School has not only the problem of finding and keeping deans but of finding and keeping the kind of personnel who for the same reasons that Maxwell wants them are in demand among other graduate schools and by government agencies.

In addition to its current coverage of more than 3,000 undergraduate students per academic year and its productivity measured in graduate degrees, the Maxwell faculty produces a steady bulk of scholarly writing. During the past year Professor Joseph Tussman's *Obligation and the Body Politic* and *The Overseas Americans* by Harlan Cleveland, Gerard Mangone and John Adams both received the attention they merited. The two books represent two extremes of Maxwell activity; philosopher Tussman wrote alone at night in an exercise designed to sharpen his own considerable teaching skills and only submitted the manuscript for publication upon the urging of his friends. He was genuinely surprised when the first publisher to whom it was submitted decided to print it without revision. On the other hand, *The Overseas Americans* is the final report of a three-year study, financed by the Carnegie Corporation, on U.S. citizens abroad. Many Maxwell faculty members and graduate students contributed to the book and its findings, and, as the authors observe in their preface, the book is very close to being totally a Maxwell enterprise for which they have acted as the rapporteurs.

Standard textbooks in American history, American social and cultural history, geography and government are authored by Maxwell faculty members, and scholarly articles appear regularly under the Maxwell imprint.

During the long tenure of Dean Mosher (1924-46), training emphasis was placed upon practice. The faculty had in its membership many successful public servants, and some public administration courses are still taught by government officials who commute to their Maxwell classrooms from their Washington offices. In more recent years, a balance between theory and practice has been sought, and we shall continue to work for it.

There has been an internationalization of Maxwell's interests for public service. Historically, Dean Paul Appleby originated the first formal overseas commitment undertaken by the Maxwell School. In 1950, he inaugurated a cooperative program linking Maxwell with the Indian Institute of Public Administration in New Delhi. Since that time, many Maxwell faculty members have gone to India, and we have had the satisfaction of welcoming both Indian teachers and students here at Syracuse. As recently as this past spring, Dean Emeritus Appleby visited

Dean Bailey talks with a foreign student

the Institute to draw plans for the future and to lecture. A closer union between these two schools has gone beyond the planning into the implementation stage.

In 1956, the overseasmanship study was begun. This work coincided with the inauguration of Dean Harlan Cleveland, and since the research did indeed involve using the world for a laboratory, friendly folklore began to talk about "Harlan's Globetrotters." The term is not at all misleading, because this research created many opportunities for senior Maxwell faculty to travel usefully and widely. Since 1956, it has been becoming increasingly possible to give graduate students opportunities to do on-the-spot studying.

In 1958, a projected annual Institute on Overseas Operations was inaugurated. This Institute aimed at collecting a small group of responsible academic, governmental and private persons together for a few weeks in the summer to discuss on a high level America's problems and possibilities overseas. The Institute is designed especially for policy-level and advanced administrative personnel with responsibilities in recruitment, selection and supervision of overseas operations in government, business and philanthropic-religious agencies, as well as for technical experts about to embark on overseas assignments. The Institute's interdisciplinary curriculum encompasses such topics as American foreign policy and operations, cultural patterns and social change, economic development, Soviet external operations and the American heritage.

Also in 1958, we began the Graduate Overseas Training Program through which advanced students are put through an interdisciplinary seminar and language training at Syracuse before being sent into a foreign country. First in Italy, then in Japan and currently in Nigeria, a group of graduate students is learning overseasmanship through an "in-depth" experience. After their period in Syracuse, these students are given special work-and-study assignments in the selected country. They live in the country; and, under the direction of the group's staff, they live as deeply as possible in the midst of

the people. The group both meets together and then disperses for independent work. Each student is required to write a detailed report about some phase of his experience or about some research he or she has done in the country. Not only are these reports collected and circulated among interested Maxwell faculty and students, but some have even had enough merit to be published. The students currently in Nigeria are probably the first group of graduate students ever to study Hausa, the most widely used language in Nigeria, in a U.S. university.

The Africa-Asia Program was instituted in 1959 in response to the growing demand for trained and experienced American administrators abroad. The first ten Fellows are now assuming posts in the governments of nine African and Asian countries. They have been selected from leading American universities and will be spending one to two years in overseas assignments which range from assistant secretaries in development ministries to junior administrators in land reclamation projects. The program is financed by a grant from the Ford Foundation which provides full travel and subsistence allowances for Fellows and their families.

In 1960, the Ford Foundation granted Maxwell funds for the support of a three-year, cross-cultural study experience. The program developed under the terms of this grant is unique in many ways, but especially because it has been so carefully structured to mesh with the rest of Maxwell's activities. The program is designed to invite distinguished faculty members from other parts of the world to Syracuse so that they can teach, talk and write. The key word here is "exposure"—that is, to bring together the ideas of scholars as they have been formulated in different parts of the world. Maxwell wants to promote faculty seminars to improve the understanding of its own members not only between disciplines but also between worlds. Five research projects are under way as a part of the cross-cultural program. Comparative national planning, the introduction of exotic cultures into less-developed areas, economic development, theories of power structure and political power as it is dependent upon spatial accessibility are all under investigation. There is new excitement not only about all of the projects but also about the tremendous potentialities these projects offer for graduate student assistance. We already have been able to send a few graduate students overseas to work on studies such as these. A significant percentage of Ford funds is channeled through salaries, travel funds and other subsidies to students themselves. It is not wise to belabor the cliché about the world being Maxwell's new laboratory, but to any social scientist this is true, and to many members of the Maxwell faculty it is becoming even truer. When it becomes realizably true for a large part of our graduate student body, we shall genuinely be proud of our globetrotting.

It is the successful crossing of cultures (it is no accident that crossing can be interpreted to mean both bridging and mating) upon which so much of the future of all of us depends.

The Maxwell School hopes to do more of what it is already doing. We hope to expand the horizons of our citizenship program, which has for a long time been cognizant of world political affairs but which we hope will pay more notice to world cultural affairs. We plan to spend much of our energy studying metropolitan problems, both on a national and an international scale. If the U.S. is already a community of cities, the world is likely to become the same. We hope to dig deeply into the geographical, economic and anthropological ways of looking at contemporary problems. We hope, most of all, to continue to teach in a way that will lighten the dark corners of men's minds wherever they are—the dark corners which are the lairs of their fears.

Evolution from the Oxcart

JEANETTE H. EILENBERG

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The emergence of Cambodia, the ancient empire of the Khmers, as a new member of the world of nations in 1954 brought with it new requirements and a reorientation of its problems, of which education is not the least. This little-known Southeast Asian country had reached the peak of its cultural development in the twelfth century, as testified by the ruins of Angkor Wat; it then disappeared from the annals of history and was almost relegated to the world of legend until the nineteenth century when it fell under French protectorate. After 100 years of Western domination, Cambodia won its independence in a bitter revolutionary war. But centuries of isolation and years of dependency had left their mark, and Cambodia found itself little prepared to carry out its plans and to face the manifold problems of its newly won sovereignty. In spite of these difficulties, the last seven years have witnessed many new developments in Cambodia. Encouraging signs of economic and social progress and expansion of educational facilities bear testimony to the country's slow transition from the oxcart stage to modernism.

Cambodia is ethnically homogeneous. Approximately 86 per cent of its population is of Khmer descent and of Theravada Buddhist persuasion. This majority is in political control and, in fact, excludes all outsiders from government positions; yet it fails to control the commerce and industry of the nation and has been unable to prevent minority groups from playing a dominant role in the national economy. Deprived of political privileges and even of the right to public education, the Chinese and, to a lesser degree, the Vietnamese direct commerce and industry to an extent totally out of proportion to their numbers. The Chinese are the tradesmen, moneylenders, speculators, transporters, contractors and entrepreneurs, and they comprise a newly rich and genuine middle class. They believe strongly in the power of education and, therefore, have developed their own school system. In 1958, 80 per cent of all Cambodian private schools were Chinese, many offering extension programs to prepare students for higher education in China, France, Vietnam or Hong Kong.

Unlike the Chinese, the Cambodians have been unrealistic and fundamentally satisfied with the status quo. Their complacent, peace-loving, humanitarian temperament has, for centuries, been molded by Buddhism, systematically taught in the traditional pagoda schools by *bonzes* (Buddhist monks). With the exception of a relative handful of educated civil officials and capitalists, the Cambodian masses live in ignorance, poverty and disease, with a life expectancy of 30 years.

The successful outcome of the War of Independence from France was the first impetus in lifting Cambodia out of its stagnant, underdeveloped state, but its transformation into a self-governing, modern nation is a long-time project. Two disparate factors, each accompanied by modifications in educational policies, played important roles in the country's transformation. These conditions were: (1) a complex bureaucratic governmental structure which had been its heritage from France and (2) its predominently agrarian economy together with underdeveloped industry and commerce.

At least 80 per cent of Cambodia's male population is engaged in agriculture. Farmers live in small communities composed of from 20 to 100 thatched-roofed huts. They till the highly fertile soil with ox-drawn plows and transport their products (rice, soya, corn, tobacco, peanuts, sesame and cotton) in

carts drawn by water buffaloes. About 50 per cent are illiterate, and few are educated beyond the third grade. Independence from France, however, has stimulated education; schools are at present crowded, and enrollment has increased more than fourfold. The traditional pagoda schools, found in the villages and modernized under French rule to include secular subjects, are under the present regime gradually being replaced by secular institutions.

These new developments have demanded the construction of new school buildings and the training of secular teachers. However, unable to finance such improvements, and realizing the need for social, economic and educational progress, Prince Sihanouk, Premier of Cambodia, was faced with the dilemma of asking for foreign aid and the risk of surrendering Cambodia's sovereignty. In 1958 he announced that he would be forced to depend on well-intentioned friends to achieve economic independence. Aid came from the United States, the Soviet Union, the Chinese Peoples' Republic and France. The most important of the educational foreign aid projects is the construction (under the auspices of the United States Overseas Mission) of a normal school at Kampong Kantuot for the training of Cambodian primary school teachers. The first graduating class of this school received its diplomas last April. Because most of the graduates are expected to teach in rural communities, the Kantuot teacher training center promises to be a giant step forward in eliminating mass illiteracy and in awakening the peasants to the need of improved agricultural methods.

When the French were removed from authority, the Cambodians had to convert the governmental structure established by the French to meet the new goals of their country. The translation of administrative documents, texts and technical books into Cambodian required the creation of a new technical and metaphysical vocabulary which was borrowed from Pali (Sanscrit). Cambodian functionaries had to be trained as quickly as possible to replace the French. Specialized centers of education, under the auspices of non-educational ministries, were set up for the training of staffs. These schools are: the Agricultural and Forestry School, the Police Inspectors School, the Commissioned and Non-Commissioned Officers Training School, the Public Works Inspectors School and the Health Inspectors School. These educational centers are, of course, functional in nature, but at least one of them promises to play an important role in Cambodia's system of higher education. This is the Agricultural and Forestry School, under the Ministry of Agriculture, which is at present under the guidance of a contract team from the University of Georgia. It is too early for a report on its activities, but its purpose is to meet the needs of the people and the country by providing adequate well-trained field workers in agricultural extension.

In 1954, the only institution of higher learning in existence was the National Institute of Legal, Political and Economic Studies, founded by the French for the training of civil servants. It has three programs of study: a two-year course offering a diploma; a three-year course offering a license in law, equivalent to the degree given by the faculties of the French Union, and a two-year postgraduate course offering a doctorate. Students are admitted to the National Institute after passing competitive examinations. In 1957, nine students received diplomas,

seven licenses and five doctorates. Cambodians interested in other faculties of higher education may obtain government grants to study abroad. In the past these students usually went to France, but now they more frequently seek higher education in the United States, Canada, Soviet Russia and Communist China.

In January 1960 the Royal Khmer University was created. When original plans for this institution were announced early in 1957, in connection with the 2,500th anniversary of the Buddhist era, the Venerable Huot Tath, Inspector of Buddhist teaching in Cambodia, thought of the school as specializing in graduate courses for monks. However, in line with the secularization of the primary and secondary public school system, this new university is not under Buddhist control. It comprises five separate schools: the Law School, the Royal School of Medicine, the

Royal School of Sciences, the School of Arts and Letters and the National Institute of Pedagogy.

The entire system of education in Cambodia is undergoing frequent changes. In reply to a letter of inquiry from me, Robert Bullington, educational adviser to the U.S. Overseas Mission in Phnom Penh, wrote: "It is not easy to know from day to day the exact status of some of these institutions."

The Law School has grown. It occupies a new building opened in August 1960 and has about 370 registered students. The Royal School of Medicine, with an enrollment of 200, has been in existence since 1955, but has in reality offered no more than a pre-medical course. Until the present, Cambodians seriously interested in obtaining a medical degree usually have completed their education in France. However, within the last year, Russia has given Cambodia its first modernly equipped hospital. This new hospital should enable medical students to obtain practical experience and stimulate study in a field that has certain priority in Cambodia.

The National Institute of Pedagogy, which offers a bachelor's degree, was founded in 1942 by the French as the Ecole Normale. It now has 700 registered students. Primary and secondary student-teachers are instructed in academic subjects and given specialized courses in lesson planning.

The School of Arts and Letters, with an enrollment of 46 students in its first year, is at present conducting classes in the Institute of Pedagogy, while the School of Sciences holds classes for its 52 students in the medical building.

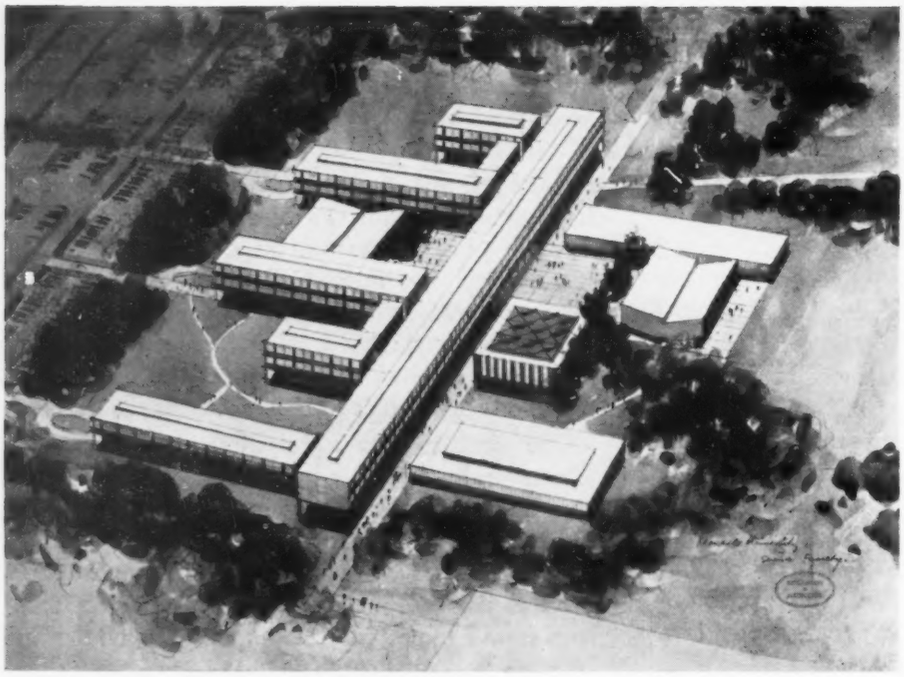
In creating the Royal Khmer University, Cambodia has made a good beginning in the field of higher education, but at present it can serve only a minute percentage of the population. There is danger that the already-existing cleavage between the educated elite and the illiterate and semi-illiterate masses may widen unless the newly trained physicians and teachers can ameliorate the suffering brought about by disease and ignorance in the sparsely inhabited hinterland of Cambodia. Educating agriculturists and technicians is perhaps of equal importance for the advancement of Cambodia, and it is conceivable that in the future the already-established School of Agriculture and Forestry and a faculty of technology will become divisions of the university.

Although the need for technicians is crucial, there has been little motivation in Cambodia for learning modern skills. Cambodia's industrial achievements are extremely limited, and skilled technicians are almost nonexistent. The Cambodian who considers education a means of rising above the low social level associated with manual and semi-manual labor seldom considers engineering or science as a career and would rather work as a clerk in an office than in a machine shop.

Although technical schooling has not been popular, interest in technical subjects is increasing. There are five technical schools in Cambodia of which Phnom Penh Technical College is the largest. The others include an apprenticeship school for tailors and shoemakers, the School of Cambodian Arts and the Practical School of Industry. The total enrollment in these schools in 1958 was 628.

The best incentive for directing Cambodians toward technological education should be the foreign aid projects that have brought modern equipment and methods of work into the country. Cambodians served as apprentice laborers to American technicians during the construction of a 300-mile road from Phnom Penh to Kompong Som on the Gulf of Siam and to French engineers who have converted the seaside town of Som into the new port of Sihanoukville, Cambodia's commercial outlet to the sea. The enormous success of the American road-builders who have so patiently and so earnestly trained their totally ignorant Cambodian helpers in welding, carpentry, electrical maintenance, plumbing, auto repair and dozens of other skills is ironical since they were not aware that they were teachers. On-the-job training may be equally important as technical education offered in schools.

The growth of higher education in Cambodia goes hand in hand with the development of its commerce and industry. The present unfavorable balance of trade which compels the country to import essential materials like machinery, electrical equipment, pharmaceutical and chemical products, iron, steel and paper, and the inadequate transportaiton facilities and cumbersome postal regulations all have a decisive effect on the growth of the new university. Library facilities are now limited to an antiquated, haphazard collection of yellowed books. Laboratory equipment and other study aids must be introduced, but the transportation of such material from abroad is impeded by one single-track railroad that runs only 385 kilometers in the direction of the Thailand border, inadequate roads and trucking facilities and the prohibitive cost of air freight. However, under the stimulus of foreign aid, portents point to Cambodia's slow evolution from the oxcart stage. This evolution is, of course, dependent on Cambodia's ability to maintain its neutral position in Southeast Asia.



An architectural plan of Monash University

One of the World's Newest Universities

JAMES A. L. MATHESON

Dr. Matheson is Vice-Chancellor of Monash University, one of the newest universities in the world.

The establishment of a multi-faculty university as a new and independent institution is an important event on the Australian educational scene. Since the University of Western Australia was founded in 1912, three Universities—New England, New South Wales and Australian National—have come into being, but only the last of these was a completely new foundation and, until recently, it accepted only postgraduate students in a limited number of fields.

The origin of Monash University can be traced back to the immediate postwar years when the University of Melbourne was experiencing severe pressure because of the returning ex-servicemen. About that time it became clear that a second university in Victoria could not be long delayed. It also was clear that facilities for scientific and technical education were particularly in need of reinforcement. No action was taken, however, until 1957 when the Murray Committee, which was examining the Australian University situation as a whole, was asked to advise on the special problems of Victoria.

The Committee's examination of the situation led to the conclusion that the demand for places in arts and commerce was building up just as rapidly as in other faculties; that the technologies flourish best in association with strong departments of pure science, and that the general education of engineers and scientists was in need of strengthening. It therefore concluded that a general university was necessary and, from its study of the statistics, it thought that such a university should be ready by 1964 at the latest. These recommendations were accepted by State government and incorporated in the Monash University Act of 1958.

The new University was named for General Sir John Monash, a university man with degrees in arts, engineering and law, who was gifted with remarkable versatility and breadth of interest. He was the outstanding Australian soldier of his day and, as an engineer, his pioneering work for the State Electricity Commission contributed directly to the material prosperity of the State.

The Interim Council, which was charged with the responsibility of bringing the new University into being, began its task by reviewing the educational statistics. By this time, more recent and more reliable figures were available from which it appeared that teaching must begin by 1961 if the University of Melbourne was not to be overwhelmed with additional responsibilities. The formative period for Monash University thus was reduced from six to three years, and it became necessary to proceed simultaneously on several fronts.

An estate of some 250 acres was obtained for the new University about 12 miles from the city of Melbourne. The Monash Act specified that teaching was to begin with science, medicine and technology. Accordingly, architectural plans were begun with the design of first-year science buildings. For this same reason the first professorial chairs to be advertised were in the sciences. The appointees, together with the vice-chancellor, the registrar and the librarian, assumed their duties in 1960.

In the meantime the Australian Universities Commission, which, also on the advice of the Murray Committee, had been formed to advise the federal government on university affairs, had begun its work. It soon decided that Monash University must also make an early start in teaching arts and economics, and these two faculties were added to the three previously contemplated. There was no time to change the building plans and, since temporary buildings were undesirable, it was decided to use the buildings under construction for all the University's needs in 1961. This policy is a continuing one; each building will be used fully from the outset, partly for its final purpose and partly for temporary purposes. By the end of 1963, however, all departments should be in their final accommodations.

The exceptionally short time in which all these preparations were made has denied the University the gestation period in which the academic and administrative structure might have been worked out. Many problems remain to be solved: the proper place of foreign languages, especially Oriental and Pacific languages, in an Australian arts faculty; the extent to which arts students should study science and vice versa; the best way of administering special courses for non-specialists, and the best system of government for a university which will grow at the rate of not less than 1,000 students per year. All these problems must be tackled along with the establishment of the various courses of study. It will be a fascinating task but a hard one. The vigorous, able and imaginative staff members who have already come to Monash, and who will be joined by many others, are attracted by the vision of a new university, liberal in spirit and fresh in outlook, in which the defects of existing universities will be avoided as far as possible. They will have a wonderful opportunity to share in the development of the growing, changing and maturing society of scholars that is Monash.

Much of the University is still under construction.

BAGHDAD'S INDEPENDENT UNIVERSITY

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Iraq has a rich cultural history. In ancient times it nursed such flourishing civilizations as those of Sumer, Babylonia and Assyria, and during the medieval period it served as the center of Arab Islamic culture. Scholars from various parts of the world came to study in the great schools and libraries of its capital city, Baghdad. Later, however, and particularly since the fall of Baghdad in 1258, due to the Mongol invasion under Hulagu, learning was subjugated to foreign domination. Only in the early years of this century did signs of a revival become apparent.

Those years witnessed the foundation of the first two colleges now constituting Baghdad University: the College of Theology (1907) and the College of Law (1908). Two decades later (in 1923) The Higher Teachers' Training College, now the College of Education, was established, followed by the Medical College (1927), the College of Pharmacy (1936) and College of Engineering (1942). After the end

Baghdad University in Iraq

of the second world war and up to 1961, 15 more colleges and higher institutes came into being: Tahrir College (for women) (1946), College of Commerce (1947), College of Arts (1949), College of Sciences (1949), College of Agriculture (1950), Higher Institute of Industrial Engineering (1950), College of Dental Medicine (1953), Veterinary College (1953), Higher Institute of Physical Education (1955), Institute of Public Administration (1958), Higher Institute of Languages (1958), Institute of Surveying (1958), Institute of Forestry (1959), Institute of Accounting and Business Administration (1959—now attached to the Ministry of Education) and Mosul Medical College (1959).

Until 1957 the colleges functioned independently with no coordination in their programs and activities. They were under the supervision of different ministries such as the Ministry of Education, Ministry of Health and the Ministry of Agriculture. However, when the Baghdad University Law of 1956 was put into effect, in 1957, a founding council was appointed by the government. It was entrusted with the task of studying the conditions of existing colleges and the means of improving their standards as a step toward incorporating colleges with acceptable academic standards in the University. After the Revolution of July 14, 1958, immediate and practical steps were taken to give the University a definite form. The founding council was dissolved and a new law for the University replaced that of 1956, creating the present University Council which consists of a president, vice-presidents, secretary-general, deans of colleges, four professors elected by four colleges and a representative of the Ministry of Education.

Baghdad University, like Iraq's primary and secondary schools, is supported entirely by the State. No fees are required. Admission is mainly based on the applicants' grades attained in the baccalaureate national examination of the secondary schools or other equivalent non-Iraqi schools. Living accommodations and meals are offered without charge to students from areas other than Baghdad in the following Colleges and Institutes: Agriculture, Education, Enginering, Forestry, Industrial Engineering, Physical Education, Surveying, Tahrir and Veterinary Medicine. Other colleges and institutes provide rooming facilities.

Free facilities are also provided to foreign students. In 1959-60, the University had 464 students from 23 countries in attendance.

The course of program runs for four years in colleges and for three or two years in institutes, except in the College of Medicine where the program lasts for six years. In the colleges, all of these programs lead to a B.A., B.Sc., M.B., Ch.B. or B.D.S. degree, and to a diploma in the institutes. Programs leading to an M.A. or M.Sc. began in 1960, with the hope that it will be possible, within a short period, to award doctorates, once the necessary academic conditions become available.

The language of instruction is Arabic, although English also is used in teaching several subjects, particularly in the fields of chemistry, engineering, medicine and physics.

Several research projects have been supported by the University in various colleges during the last three years, and there is an institute purely devoted to research in natural history.

Following the emergence of the Republic in 1958, vigorous efforts have been made to expand the University and to improve its academic quality. The number of faculty members and lecturers has risen from 536 in 1957-58 to 1,085 in 1960-61, and the number of students from 5,416 to 11,766. Laboratories and libraries of all colleges and institutes have been and are still being improved. In addition, the University Central Library was established in 1959. This library is eventually expected to house more than one million volumes and to accommodate 1,000 readers.

Nevertheless, there are still certain obstacles and problems related to the shortage of faculty, campus buildings, objectives of the University and academic freedom. To combat the shortage of faculty, the University staff members were asked to teach for a limited number of extra hours for which specific fees were paid, and outside qualified lecturers were invited to teach several hours per week in their fields of specialization. The University also recruited professors from foreign lands. In 1959-60 there were 115 professors from 19 countries. These foreign scholars offer cultural enrichment to university life, and it is hoped that the gathering of foreign professors in Baghdad University will establish a tradition to be preserved for many years.

Another problem that the University faces is of a physical nature. Presently, the University administration and various colleges are housed in different scattered buildings. However, the government of the Republic, being aware of the unhealthy effects and waste which this physical distance creates, has allocated funds for the construction of a university city. The site chosen is Jadriyya, a peninsula surrounded by the Tigris in the southern quarter of Baghdad. It offers both tranquillity and closeness to the city, and will allow the University to retain its own character.

The University entrance gate, called "The Open Mind"

The question of defining the objectives of Baghdad University has been under continuous discussion. Should they be viewed in a utilitarian way, in terms of training experts and specialists for the country, or should they also be based upon the pursuit of knowledge for its own sake? How far should the University be responsible for the training of citizens? And by what ideals should they be guided as members of the Iraqi society? If the pursuit of knowledge for its own sake has not been totally accepted as the goal for all universities in highly developed countries, it is less likely to gain support in newly developing countries such as Iraq.

Baghdad University cannot and should not avoid its involvement in important practical functions such as the training of professional specialists, particularly when Iraq awaits a large number of technicians, teachers, medical specialists and others required for the successful realization of the country's many projects and plans for development.

Taking into account the role of Baghdad University, on the one hand, in the whole process of transforming Iraq into a progressive and adequately developed society, culturally, socially and technically, and, on the other hand, the necessity of fostering research in various directions as a channel by which the frontiers of human knowledge can be expanded, the University authorities have emphasized three main objectives:

- to prepare people for various professions and to provide the country with experts
- to carry out both theoretical and practical scientific research
- to educate the youth of Iraq to be good citizens capable of fulfilling the aspirations and needs of the country.

But the admission policy of Baghdad University is still dictated to a certain extent by the necessity to conform to all available resources, such as teachers, buildings and laboratories. There is, however, a growing recognition of the necessity for a planned policy of admissions based on a comprehensive study of the country's needs.

One of the challenging issues that confronts universities everywhere is how to preserve their freedom. The question becomes more complicated in developing countries where universities are supported mainly by the state and play, in many cases, an active role in the political life of the nation. In such countries, it is not surprising to witness university professors or students dismissed or jailed because they voice opinions at variance with the will and tendencies of the ruling class. Higher education in Iraq, as late as 1958, had suffered a great deal from such conditions. However, with the establishment of the Republic, Baghdad University began to enjoy more freedom. Article 2 of the University Law of 1958 emphasizes that "the University is a safe sanctuary." The Prime Minister, Abdul Karim Kassim, declared on many occasions that the University is independent and should remain independent.

The President of the University was given the rank of a state minister to assure him a free hand in running the University. The University's independence was also furthered by the acknowledgment of the right of faculty members and students to join legal political parties and to form professional organizations. However, the University's independence should also be maintained from within. As Dr. A. J. Abdullah, President of the University declared in his commencement address this year:

> The University's independence has two sides: independence from external interference related to official circles, and a feeling of independence growing from within, among the members of the University family who believe in it, strive to maintain it and behave or act according to it.

Recent Publications

Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, May 1961, "The Rising Demand for International Education," edited by John F. Melby, Philadelphia. 254 pages. $2.00

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In the earliest days of European universities, large-scale migration of students across political frontiers was a characteristic and accepted practice. The college as a residential unit was originally national in character, such as the Spanish College at the University of Bologna, where students from a particular foreign land could live together while they worked under the great masters whose fame had brought them to the University. Later, when numbers of scholars had returned home, they formed the nuclei of universities in their own countries. Thus, Oxford and Cambridge had their origins in men who had studied at the University of Paris.

This phenomenon, which did so much to spread learning and enlightenment in Medieval Europe, today is being developed on a scale unprecedented in all history. Currently, in the United States alone there are approximately 50,000 students from abroad. The Soviet Union receives perhaps 15,000 foreign students a year. Ten per cent of all students in British universities are from overseas, and the percentage is far higher in countries such as Switzerland.

Clearly, and despite the rigid barriers of the so-called "Curtains," Iron or otherwise, national cultures become less and less autonomous as they yield to the imperatives of the modern world. Moreover, governments such as the newly independent states of Asia and Africa take an increasing role in the international exchange process as they recognize the imperative need to stimulate education among their peoples, or as in the cases of the United States and the Soviet Union, as they become aware of the relationship of educational exchange to the furtherance of foreign policy objectives. Therefore, for a variety of reasons, the volume and importance of the international migration of students will continue to grow indefinitely in the future.

Because the problems of student exchange are many and difficult, and particularly so when they are brought into the context of national political objectives, careful study must be given to the entire matter. Otherwise, much money may be wasted, the high hopes of thousands of eager young people may be frustrated and national objectives may not be served. It is high time for non-specialists in education to take stock of the situation and to increase their awareness of its complexities, dangers and possibilities.

To achieve this awareness is precisely the objective of the May 1961 issue of *The Annals*, a bimonthly publication. A score of competent writers have dealt with facets of student exchange questions. Some of the papers are technical, some are general, some procedural and some are broadly philosophical. As a whole this collection is the best single, compact analysis which this reviewer has seen. It deserves wider attention from the general public than it is likely to receive.

Understandably, the principal focus of interest is upon the foreign student in the United States. We are told who he is (by Kenneth Holland and others), how he is oriented to America and American higher education (by several authors), how he performs academically (by Ivan Putman, Jr.) and how he is advised (by James M. Davis). A series of thoughtful papers analyzes the special cultural and psychological issues and difficulties faced by students coming from each of the great regions of the world. Finally, the whole program is evaluated in philosophical terms, particularly by Charles Malik, the distinguished Lebanese statesman and scholar.

What conclusions may one draw from this collection of papers? First, it seems generally agreed that every effort should be made to bring to the United States foreign students at the graduate level and to discourage undergraduates. Second, care must be taken to guide these students into our better institutions, where the educational experience will produce men and women whose attainments will creditably reflect higher education in this country. Third, every effort should be made to put foreign students into the main stream of American life. Finally, we should do all we can to clarify our own national objectives and to make our foreign student guests aware of them.

These conclusions, particularly the last one, are difficult to implement, given the diversity of American institutions and the lack of centrally directed policy in educational matters. But this is the way we choose to live, the way we are determined to live, and we must hope that foreign students in this country will gain, by experience, time and reflection, a sense of what our solicitude for individual self-reliance—a basic need of the human spirit—means to the long-range development of societies. Indeed, an awareness of the price of excessive regimentation would be a valuable concept which we hope our youthful guests might be induced to take home with them.

Reviewed by Grayson Kirk, President of Columbia University.

Manual of Educational Statistics. UNESCO Publications, Paris, 1961. 241 pages. $3.00. Distributed by International Documents Service, Columbia University Press, 2960 Broadway, New York 27, New York.

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The popular comment that "statistics don't lie—but statisticians do" is probably open to challenge on both counts; but even when the accuracy of statistics and the probity of the statisticians are above reproach, the figures may be of only limited use.

The problem lies in statisticians' definitions of what will be counted. For example, what is an *illiterate person?* Is it someone who cannot write or read even his own name, someone who cannot write or read a simple statement, or someone who cannot read or write a more complex statement? Unless statisticians agree on what constitutes illiteracy, statistics on variously defined groups of illiterates will be dissimilar and therefore not comparable.

This dissimilarity is an example of the difficulties which Unesco has encountered in its efforts to collect figures from national educational authorities throughout the world and to present world-wide figures on education in publications such as the *World Survey of Education.*

So that statistics supplied by national agencies will be comparable internationally, Unesco is attempting to standardize the work of educational statisticians by developing definitions which will be used throughout the world. *The Manual of Educational Statistics* is designed as a guide for persons responsible for the compilation of statistics on education. The major portion of the book is devoted to a description of the concepts, definitions and classifications relating to statistics on illiteracy, the educational attainment of the population, educational institutions and educational finance.

Although the Manual is directed to a limited audience—the "figure-collectors" in countries throughout the world—it is to be hoped that its long-term result will be uniform and comparable statistics on education.

Statistics will not be an international language until there is agreement on definitions of what or who is being counted. When such statistics are available, they will be of inestimable value to national and international agencies—both public and private—in planning and developing educational programs within and among countries.

International technical cooperation in procedural matters such as the standardization of statistics may prepare the way for greater international cooperation in substantive matters.

Reviewed by Arthur Feraru, Dean of the Suffolk Division of Adelphi College.

The Education of Nations, by Robert Ulich. Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1961. 325 pages. $6.75.

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In this interesting book, Dr. Ulich, Professor Emeritus of Education at Harvard, discusses "The forces that have molded the educational systems and ideals of the Western nations." His approach is both historical and comparative, although the title is not entirely accurate. He believes, as do most of us, that comparative study is needed by those concerned with our cultural and international situation; the

history of education in a single country cannot be understood in isolation. He thinks, too, that a historical approach is required to carry thought below the surface of events. And his chief aim and concern is the elucidation of a philosophical and cultural problem rather than the provision of a systematic account of educational systems and practices. Those who want to know how education in Western countries is administered and financed, what kinds of schools and colleges exist and how teachers are trained must look elsewhere. The book does not contain a well-organized history of the evolution of educational ideas; it consists, rather, of a number of somewhat disconnected and discursive essays by a well-read, wise and very cultured person who reflects upon what he knows about education in different countries and at various epochs.

Dr. Ulich divides his treatise into two parts. The first—about a quarter of the whole—studies the "Historical and Cultural Foundations" in four chapters dealing respectively with the Middle Ages, the Renaissance and Reformation, the Age of Reason and the Era of Technology. The bias throughout is metaphysical: the author's interest evidently is in logical analyses or in scientific ideas. Thus, for example, the "three great universal ideas of the Middle Ages are *Imperium*, *Sacerdotium* and *Studium*. One reads little of the struggle of peasant and noble, about the influence of Arabs and Jews or about the rise of the free cities of Northern Italy and Flanders. To the Era of Technology only seven pages are allotted, of which two deal with "The Spiritual Situation."

The second part of the book is divided into five chapters dealing with education in England, France, Germany, the U.S.A. and Russia. Here again the treatment is somewhat idiosyncratic. The "persistent problems" are listed as: nationalism versus humanity, the state versus the individual, centralization versus decentralization, the role of religion, tradition versus reform. Many important issues certainly can be discussed under these headings—and they are —but it may still be doubted whether they are the ones best suited to a careful statement and analysis of the policy decisions which have to be faced by men in charge of education. I believe that sociological analysis, based on a scientific study of human problems, is more rewarding and helpful than necessarily and dangerously vague philosophical *obiter dicta* based upon idealist philosophies of a quasi-religious kind.

I agree very readily that I have enjoyed reading Dr. Ulich's book and that I have learned from it. I shall return to it frequently and always with profit. His style of writing is clear and smooth, though often grandiose. He gives quotations from unusual and unexpected sources. His judgments seem sound and frequently penetrating. Yet, I am left with a sense of unease and disquiet. The generalizations are too vast, too sweeping, too easy. In the privileged classes of the Middle Ages we find "a pessimism that is more the result of fatigue, spleen, self-defeating luxury and boredom than of piety." Splendid—but a nagging voice asks—where? when? names? In Germany "philosophy became sterile after Burckhardt and until Dilthey, Max Scheler and Husserl." But can one thus ignore the Vienna circle?

In addition, with all respect, I am perturbed by small mistakes of important detail. Those who have flown over the Urals know that they are not "an enormous mountain range" but rather a series of rolling hills. And when did T. H. Huxley reverse his opinion about the descent of man? Can one condense 500 years of French history into half a page and then draw from it the principal view "whereas England is the classic country of decentralization, France is the classic country of centralization?" Finally, in this book dates jump about and periods get mixed in a confusing manner. None of this would matter if, as a result, no general conclusions and theories were drawn. But they are.

If a historian has complete control over the order of the dates he quotes, he may draw any conclusions he pleases and avoid discussion of any topic he dislikes. I have the feeling this has happened quite often in Dr. Ulich's book.

In spite of such reservations and criticisms, there can be no doubt that *Education of Nations* is an important and stimulating book. Every serious student of comparative education should read it and ponder carefully the notions and theories defended, in order to be certain of whether he may accept or must reject them. So should all historians of education—the book holds insights and interpretations which are illuminating and provocative, even though they may prove unsubstantial. Few will give unqualified assent to all that is advanced—but we can be certain that Dr. Ulich, a great teacher, will feel honored if those who study his writings are moved to original thought even if they then reject rather than thoughtlessly accept.

Reviewed by J. A. Lauwerys, Professor of Comparative Education and Chairman of the Board of Studies at the University of London.

Undergraduate Study Abroad

Scholarship Opportunities

News and Notes

Openings Abroad

Oregon and Scandinavia Link

A $4,000,000 Scandinavian Trade and Cultural Center is planned for construction in Portland, Oregon, to advance economic and cultural relations between the Pacific Northwest States and Sweden, Norway, Denmark, Finland and Iceland. The Center will encourage and facilitate an increased flow of goods, services, information, ideas and people between the Pacific Northwest and Scandinavia.

The Scandinavian Center will aim to meet the needs of small companies unable to afford international representation in conducting foreign commerce. It will locate distributors to market American products in the Scandinavian countries, arrange manufacturing contacts and assist in the negotiation of license agreements between Scandinavian producers and Northwestern businessmen. It also will assist in arranging for the manufacture of Scandinavian products in the Northwest under joint financing, license or outright sale of manufacturing rights.

The Center is planned as a bridge between the Pacific Northwest and the Scandinavian countries for the mutual advantage of both.

News Bulletin Index

The Index for issues of the *News Bulletin*, the Institute of International Education's former monthly magazine, published during 1960-61 is now available. Copies may be obtained free of charge from the Institute of International Education, 800 Second Avenue at 42nd Street, New York 17, New York.

Institute for Sovietology

The Federal Ministry of the Interior in Cologne, Germany, has announced the establishment of the Institute of Sovietology in Cologne. The Institute will analyze research bearing on the controversy between East and West; it will conduct research on the teachings of Marx and Lenin and other aspects of dialectical materialism, and research into the Communist movement throughout the world and its ideological and socio-political development with special reference to the developing countries of Africa and Asia.

The Institute will be headed by a group of scholars acting in an honorary capacity: Dr. Gunther Stokl, Professor of Eastern European History at Cologne University; Dr. Gustav Wetter, Rector of the Papal College for Russian Studies in Rome; Dr. Boris Meissner, Professor of Oriental Studies at Kiel University, and Dr. Karl Thalheim, Professor of International Economics at the Free University of Berlin.

World Education Series

The Committee on Foreign Students of the American Association of Registrars and Admission Officers has added four new pamphlets to their World Education Series: *The Netherlands*, a guide to the academic placement of students from the Netherlands in educational institutions in the United States of America; *Mexico*, a guide to the academic placement of students from Mexico in U.S. educational institutions; *Venezuela*, a guide to the academic placement of Venezuelan students in U.S. educational institutions, and *Austria*, a survey of Austrian education and guide to the academic placement of students from Austria in U.S. educational institutions. Further information on these volumes, as well as on the others in this series—including Canada, Germany, Korea and Thailand—may be obtained from the Publications Office, American Council on Education, 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

Life World Library

One country or geographic area of the world will be presented every two months through text and photographs in the Life World Library, a new series of six volumes published annually by Time Incor-

porated. This year volumes on *Russia, France, Italy, Britain, Japan* and *Germany* have been published.

Each volume describes the country's current situation and presents background information on its history, economy, political structure, culture, education, religious heritage, geography and points of interest in text and photographs. In addition, there are graphs, maps and charts and an appendix listing important historical dates and famous cultural figures of each country as well as a list for further reading.

Further information about the new Life World Library may be obtained from Life Books. Each volume may be purchased for $2.95 a copy from Life Books, Time Incorporated, Rockefeller Center, New York 20, New York.

Unesco Defined

Unesco has published a 64-page information manual, *What is Unesco?*, to assist speakers, teachers, organizers of study and discussion groups and persons interested in basic information about Unesco activities in the fields of science, culture and education. The material is presented in three groups: general—outline of basic information; auxiliary—the Unesco Constitution, addresses, lists and speeches; background—bibliography, lists of visual aids, publications and information centers. *What is Unesco?* includes sections on the need for Unesco; its beginnings, activities and budget; and United Nations Organization, information centers and specialized agencies. This manual may be obtained for 50 cents per copy from Unesco Publications Center, 801 Third Avenue, New York, New York.

Undergraduate Study Abroad

The Institute of International Education has recently published *Transplanted Students*, a 19-page report summarizing conference discussions and recommendations from the National Conference on Undergraduate Study Abroad held in October 1960. The Conference was sponsored by the Association of American Colleges, the Council on Student Travel, the Experiment in International Living and the Institute of International Education.

This report is concerned with matters such as the goals of programs and of participating students; the timing of the foreign study experience, and the selection and preparation of the students. It contains suggestions for establishing an overseas academic program, a list of both public and private sources of assistance and helpful references.

Transplanted Students may be obtained for 50¢ a copy from the Institute of International Education, 800 Second Avenue, New York 17, New York.

Yearbook of British Universities

The Association of Universities of the British Commonwealth has published *Commonwealth Universities Yearbook, 1961*, an annual directory of British universities and the handbook of the Association. The 1,590-page Yearbook is designed to provide relevant data to students wishing to attend a university in a country of the British Commonwealth and gives a general outline of university education in each country as well as a listing of institutions of higher education. It also includes a section on statistics which shows a total enrollment of 11,284 students from other countries studying at universities in the United Kingdom during the academic year 1959-60. The inclusion of new institutions as well as the increase in the teaching staffs and academic activities of the universities have resulted in an 80-page increase in this volume of the *Yearbook*. Further information on the *Commonwealth Universities Yearbook* may be obtained from the Association of Universities of the British Commonwealth, 36 Gordon Square, London, W.C. 1, England.

Scholarship Opportunities

GRADUATE STUDY IN POLAND AND RUMANIA

The Polish and Rumanian governments will offer scholarships to U.S. students for study in selected universities for the academic year 1962-63.

Candidates must be U.S. citizens, at least 21 years of age and must have a bachelor's degree and an adequate knowledge of the language of the host country. Candidates for Rumanian government awards must also have one year of graduate training. The competition is open to men and women in any field of study. No funds will be available for the support of a grantee's dependents.

Candidates who qualify for the Polish and Rumanian government awards will automatically be considered for a United States travel grant. These U.S. grants provide funds for round-trip travel between the United States and the host country, 25 lbs. excess baggage and a pre-departure orientation allowance of $72. Only advanced graduate students with at least a year of graduate study are eligible for a U.S. travel grant to Poland.

The Polish government awards are expected to provide tuition, living accommodations on the university campus, a monthly stipend of 2,400 zlotys (about $100) and medical care. Awards for study in

Rumania will provide tuition and a monthly stipend to cover living expenses.

Completed application forms must be returned to the Institute of International Education by November 1, 1961. Students may obtain further information and applications from their campus Fulbright advisers. Other persons may write to the Information and Counseling Division of the Institute of International Education, 800 Second Avenue at 42nd Street, New York 17, New York, or to the Institute's regional offices (see contents page) for applications or further information.

Fellowships in Nuclear Metallurgy

The National Atomic Energy Commission of Argentina in cooperation with the Inter-American Nuclear Energy Commission will offer a course in Nuclear Metallurgy from March 21 through December 21, 1962. Participants must devote their full time to the course and will be required to attend classes in theory and practice for eight hours a day, Monday through Friday, at the laboratories of the National Atomic Energy Commission of Argentina in Buenos Aires.

Fourteen fellowships will be available to participating students and will be awarded on the basis of the applicant's academic and scientific background and experience. Special fellowships will be made for successful U.S. applicants. Candidates must be citizens of one of the American republics; university graduates in chemistry, engineering, metallurgy or physics, and must be fluent in Spanish.

The course will be conducted by Argentine and foreign university professors and research investigators of the National Atomic Energy Commision of Argentina. The Commission will provide laboratories consisting of facilities for welding and thermal treatment, mechanical deformation, power metallurgy and a central laboratory for basic research.

Applications must be submitted by December 1, 1961. Requests for further information and completed applications should be sent to Dr. Jesse D. Perkinson, Director, Division of Science Development, Pan American Union, Washington 6, D.C.

Openings Abroad

An organization for applied research in electronics is being set up near Luxembourg. Openings will be available in January 1962 in the fields of automatic control, transistor circuit design, instrumentation, computer programing, communication-engineering and advanced business administration. Applicants should have at least an M.S. and preferably a Ph.D. degree from a U.S. university. Further inquiries and applications should be directed to M. Jean Peschon, Ingenieur-Docteur, 75, BD. G.-D. Charlotte, Luxembourg.

Letter to the Editor

To the Editor:

Please tell Pamela Hansford Johnson that I agree with her thesis completely. Travel is a lure which second-rate writers use as an excuse for not having done the good books which they ought to be able to do in their home towns.

James A. Michener
Bucks County, Pennsylvania

"He wants to know if there is any chance of getting a Fulbright to Harvard."

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R.S.V.P.

When the President of the United States was the junior senator from Massachusetts, he wrote this:

An Old and Trusted Friend in Washington

To a person in politics election to the United States Senate represents an achievement as satisfying as being hired by the "Met" is to a singer. So when I was elected Senator from the Commonwealth of Massachusetts in 1952 I could not help being impressed—perhaps even just a bit awed.

But in the Senate, I came across an old and trusted friend—The Reader's Digest—a magazine I began reading during my tours of Navy duty in World War II. I found copies of it lying on other Senators' desks and on committee tables throughout the Capitol Building. Excerpts appeared regularly in the Congressional Record. Digest stories figured heavily in Committee hearings such as those on postal administration, the cigarette-cancer relationship, the foreign aid program, and many other subjects of national importance.

My deep interest in international affairs led me to value the understanding the Digest brings in that sphere, as well as in our national life. The Digest reaches out in other lands as an interpreter of freedom and in depicting those phases of life that are of interest to all people. It is one of the most effective voices of democracy to reach into many foreign lands and tongues.

All of us could profitably absorb some of the Digest's warm, "human-interested" attitude toward the world about it. No subject is too big for the Digest to tackle. No personal experience, if it be meaningful, is too small for it to record. Its pages are open to everyone and every idea. I only hope that during my tenure as a public official, the door to my office is similarly open to new ideas and people.

THE READER'S DIGEST PLEASANTVILLE, N.Y.